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POPULAR LIBRARIES OF THE WORLD

EDITED BY

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CHICAGO

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION

1933

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PUBLISHER'S PREFACE

IN THE spring of 1931 the Committee on International Relations of the American Library Association made extensive recommendations to the Executive Board, bearing on the international features of the 1933 Conference of the Association. These recommendations included several publications, among them a volume on the status of the popular library movement in the various countries of the world. The suggestion was favorably considered and the idea took quick shape. The Association was fortunate in securing as editor of the symposium Dr. Arthur E. Bostwick, distinguished as librarian and author and known to many librarians over the world. His international library interests had already been attested by his official visits to China in 1925 and to Rome in 1929. His knowledge of popular libraries is attested by a record of his experience and by his contributions to the literature of his profession.

With Dr. Bostwick's counsel, and that of Dr. W. W. Bishop, chairman of the Committee on International Relations, contributions for the book were solicited from more than seventy nations. Actually, forty-eight countries are represented here, though in several instances merely by brief negative statements. Many of the articles were received in foreign languages and had to be translated. Grateful acknowledgment is due the generous translators who volunteered their services.

As Dr. Bostwick has intimated in his Introduction, the articles show a wide diversity in approach, scope, and method of treatment. But it is evident that interesting things are afoot, that courage and initiative are not lacking, that inside new boundaries library development is keeping pace with political change, that in several countries recent growth has been remarkable. Perusal of this volume will show that

Publisher's Preface

library authorities in other countries have in many cases established, as settled policies, practices with which we in the United States are still experimenting.

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INTRODUCTION

THERE have been libraries in all civilized countries since the existence of written speech, but the public library as we know it was unthinkable before the general spread of literacy. Its general introduction has been earlier and its development more rapid in the United States and the countries of northern Europe, and it has been more thoroughly popularized there, than elsewhere; but it has now gone so far that an account of popular libraries throughout the world would seem to be of value and interest.

Most of the articles in the following compilation have been written by librarians or other professionally interested persons in the countries to which they refer, but where such aid could not be obtained, accounts already in print have been quoted or summarized.

This being the case, it could hardly be expected that the articles should all be written on exactly the same plan. While each, we believe, is a fair and accurate account of the rise and present status of the public library in the country concerned, the writers naturally do not envisage all the phases of the subject as of equal importance, and while one has dwelt on one of these phases, a second, perhaps, has emphasized another.

And it should be borne in mind that this difference of emphasis may be quite just. In one country the particular way in which its public library system came into being may be of paramount importance; in another, the construction and equipment of buildings; in a third, the methods adopted to make the books more useful to readers. In any case it has been necessary to trust the judgment of the contributors in this matter, and it is the editor's conviction that the interest of the book has been heightened thereby—certainly not lessened.

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"Popular Library" is a term that has been used in widely different, though related, senses. The editor does not quarrel with the particular definition adopted by each writer. He has even admitted information regarding school, university and other institutional libraries, but only when its relationship to public library progress is apparent.

In general, the libraries described in this compilation are intended to furnish reading matter to all literate persons, generally, though not always, at public expense. Although the scholar is not neglected, the books are selected with a view to the widest use, and neither the scholarly class, nor any other, is either favored or forgotten.

Of course in countries where there have long existed huge reference libraries, intended primarily for scholarly research, it has not been necessary for popular libraries to duplicate their book-collections, except in the case of works likely to be in some public demand, among readers who do not have access to these large collections.

In countries where popular libraries have been recently introduced, the tendency seems to be to regard them as intended chiefly, or even solely, for the beginning reader, and to provide books largely with this use in view; but with the growth of a public library system the point of view has changed, and it is realized that the modern reading public, served by such a system, includes persons of all classes, groups and degrees of education and culture, and that the public library must serve them all.

Perhaps the fact that is most evident from this assemblage of historical and statistical material is the essentially democratic character of the public library. It requires as its basis a community of readers—not simply of persons who are able to understand what they see on a printed page, but those who enjoy reading and are mentally fitted to profit by it. Attempts to introduce libraries in communities where such enjoyment and interest do not exist have generally been failures. But where their introduction has been part of an effort, or a policy, to reduce illiteracy, they have lent powerful aid to its accomplishment.

We should always remember that the illiterate are not necessarily ignorant. Inability to read does not argue mental inferiority. In China,

Introduction

for instance, where for thousands of years a woman who could read was a rare exception, the part played by women in domestic and social life has always been noteworthy. Reading is not the only method by which culture may be acquired; it is simply a method of acquiring it easily and quickly.

The illiterate, however, no matter what their mentality, must get their education from other sources than the written or printed word. Books and libraries presuppose literacy. The library presupposes the school, or its equivalent. A country without schools is necessarily a country without libraries. But the converse is not always true. There have been countries with schools and no libraries. Especially have there been countries with public schools but no public libraries. This was true of the United States a century ago. It may be natural that the public provision of books should not be taken up until readers had been amply provided for them. This, however, does not seem altogether to explain the facts. The private library, the church or other corporate library and the subscription library have always preceded the tax-supported library. This is because our ideas of the public necessities and conveniences that are properly tax-supported have greatly expanded of late. One would hardly expect a town that has no paved streets, no public water-supply and no street-lighting to provide from taxation a public supply of reading.

Public libraries are the products of several interacting causes—the spread of literacy, the consequent demand for reading-matter, and the conclusion that it is necessary and proper to respond to that demand by the expenditure of public money.

This response, so far, has been an uneven one. In some parts of the world there are no public libraries at all; in others they are just beginning to spring up. Even where they are best and most numerous, they are so unevenly distributed that vast vacant spaces exist, quite devoid of library service. And in some countries the libraries are subject to strict censorship to exclude works not in accord with the political and economic views of the ruling party.

Much remains to be done before public library service is anywhere

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near world-wide, but the stories brought together in the following pages at least furnish evidence of the work that is on the way toward this end.

Besides the articles appearing in this volume, contributions were solicited, but not received, from the following countries:

Algeria	Iceland
Australia	Korea
Bolivia	Latvia
Brazil	Lithuania
British Honduras	Morocco
Chile	Portugal
Colombia	Rhodesia
Cuba	Roumania
Dominican Republic	Salvador
Ecuador	Siam
Egypt	Yugoslavia
Honduras	

The article received from Uruguay was not found available for inclusion in the volume because it dealt solely with the National Library of that country.

ARTHUR E. BOSTWICK

ALBANIA

BY C. TELFORD ERICKSON, DIRECTOR,

ALBANIAN-AMERICAN SCHOOL OF AGRICULTURE,

KAVAJA, ALBANIA

ALBANIA came into statehood as an independent European nation following the World War and the Paris Conference. Unlike the other new states created at that time, she came directly out of a Turkish and Eastern empire, with no roots in European and Western civilization.

The result was that she had to begin her education with the alphabet. There was practically nothing by way of literature between the fifteenth and the twentieth century. Schools, textbooks, even primers in the Albanian language, were *yasa*k—*forbidden*. Of course, what was true of education was equally true of all phases of the nation's life—agriculture, industry, public health, housing, food, social life, roads and all communications within and without.

Considering this handicap, the nation has made very notable progress. Hundreds of schools have been created and every teacher trained in the national normal school. The public press has become a forceful factor in the intellectual life of the nation. One of the busiest shops in Tirana, the capital, is the one where Albanian books are sold. Its proprietor, Mehmet Bey Frasheri, gave up a very successful diplomatic career in order to undertake this work.

About two years ago a State Library Association was created which began actively to assemble books for a National Library at Tirana, especially such books and documents as pertained to their for-the-most-

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part buried history of 2,000 years. Of course foreign books, European and American, are likewise sought.

In addition two other libraries are being built up through the Junior Red Cross School (American) at Tirana and the school with which I am connected, the one specializing in science, and the other in agriculture, domestic science and home-making, arts and crafts.

This is about the limit of progress made to date. The American Library in Paris has very generously contributed, likewise some libraries, schools and colleges in America. One or two generous contributions, notably one by Mrs. Robert B. Gregory of Chicago, have substantially increased the one at our school.

ARGENTINA

BY ERNESTO NELSON,

EX-INSPECTOR GENERAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION OF THE

ARGENTINE REPUBLIC, AND AUTHOR OF

"LAS BIBLIOTECAS EN LOS ESTADOS UNIDOS"

ARGENTINES visiting an American city are apt to miss their native bookstores, well stocked with books on many subjects, coming from domestic and foreign publishing concerns.

These bookstores are neighborhood centers where the average Argentine supplies himself with reading matter. Children find there their school books; housewives occasionally run up to the bookshop round the corner for a cook book, while the passerby is attracted to it by the rows of chromatic book covers displayed in its show windows.

In 1914, when the last census was taken, Buenos Aires, then a city of one million and a half inhabitants, had nearly one thousand such bookstores representing an aggregate capital equivalent to five million dollars.

Traditional practices, extreme individualistic temperament and the lack of public libraries organized according to modern methods have strengthened the present situation, checked the diffusion of modern libraries and hindered the acquisition of the library habit.

In Argentina, however, the public library idea has enlisted the efforts and enthusiasm of educational leaders, most of whom have always fully recognized that the public library is an agency of socialized culture and, as such, an invaluable factor in democratic progress.

Among the Argentine educational leaders above referred to there

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was one whose influence was strongly felt during the third quarter of the last century. His name was Domingo F. Sarmiento. Much of his influence was derived from his experience in the United States, a country to which his dynamic spirit had been attracted early in life. There he met such men as Horace Mann, George Ticknor and other pioneers of popular education. He shared Mann's enthusiasm for the primary school and grasped Ticknor's idea of the popular library. It is to Sarmiento that Argentina owes the distinction of being practically the only South American republic whose schools are organized along truly democratic lines, having escaped the temptation of copying France's double-track system of elementary schools, which still prevails in Chile, Brazil, Peru and other republics.

Sarmiento kept the popular library idea well at heart. Much of what he has written on educational practice abounds in references to that institution, from which he expected wonderful results. When Sarmiento became President of Argentina in 1868 he proposed to cover the country with popular libraries. Two years after, a law was enacted creating a National Commission entrusted with the foundation, organization and aid of popular libraries throughout the country.

The law gave popular libraries a propitious start. A few years later—by 1876—one hundred and fifty-six of these had been founded and were under the Commission's care. Unhappily, this movement was destined to be short-lived.

There are two methods of forcing people into accepting a good idea. One is to impose it by legislation, and the other, to make it desirable through education. The latter method calls for an intelligent, homogeneous community, alive to its needs and ready to accept new ways of doing things. But by the seventies Argentina was in a rather crude social state. Civil wars and revolutions had kept up the warring activities that began with Independence. Constitutional organization had been delayed till 1860; and the enlightened governments which thenceforth set themselves to make a nation out of the feuds and factions left by civil strife were too eager to create civilization out of nothing. The new popular libraries had been entrusted to local com-

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missions which had had no hand in their creation, nor were they perhaps thoroughly convinced of the wisdom of broadcasting books among the masses. The fact is that after a brief span of enthusiasm popular libraries sank gradually into decadence, to such a degree that in 1894 only sixteen remained out of the 156 founded by the Commission, which, by the way, had ceased to exist several years before.

Meanwhile, genuine local interest had seasoned. Here and there popular libraries had cropped out. Lacking sufficient financial support, however, nearly all had resorted to the Federal Government for subsidies. By 1908 the yearly grants thus paid amounted to several millions. Now these subsidies, given by Congress or the Executive, were obtained through sheer political or social influence. No scale fixed the amount to be granted; the use of such money was subjected to no control whatsoever and did not entail any specific obligation on the libraries benefited by them.

In view of this situation the government decided to re-create the long extinguished National Commission, giving it control over the subsidies granted by the Federal Government to popular libraries. Besides, the Commission reassumed its former function of creating new libraries and aiding the existing ones.

The controlling power of the Commission had the effect of stopping abuses, for, according to a decree issued in 1919, the Commission may recommend the discontinuance of a subsidy in case a library suffers from poor organization.

As to the function of extending popular libraries, the newly created Commission met with success. These institutions which amounted to only 200 in 1908, were 433 in 1915, 885 in 1920, 1012 in 1925 and 1603 in 1933. Their present stock reaches to almost three million volumes.

Of the above libraries 400 have been organized by the Socialist party in furtherance of its program of popular education.

The 1603 libraries referred to are scattered through 14 provinces and 10 national territories. Of those, 149 are in the city of Buenos Aires, with the following classification: One has more than 100,000 volumes; one 60,000; three from 50 to 60,000; two from 40 to 50,000; nine from

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30 to 40,000; two from 20 to 30,000; six from 10 to 20,000; fourteen from 5 to 10,000; eight from 3 to 5,000; seventeen from 2 to 3,000; forty-one from 1 to 2,000 and forty-five with less than one thousand.

Popular libraries start either from local initiative or through the help of the National Commission. In the first case they may, of course, have no connection with the Commission. But any library may ask for a federal subsidy, provided it is lodged in suitable quarters, gives free access to the public, is open for at least twelve hours a week and submits to regular inspection. Under these conditions the grant is offered not only to libraries serving an Argentine constituency, but also to those serving a foreign section of the population.

In the second case, that is, when the library starts through the action of the Commission, such birth is generally the outcome of a visit of an inspector or commissioner to the community wishing to have a library. During that visit local interest is aroused through lectures and other propaganda.

In such cases the National Commission suggests that a meeting be called of residents interested in the founding of the library. At this meeting a local committee is elected whose first duty is to provide the library with a suitable place. Many such libraries are housed in schools and other public buildings.

In order to supplement its work, the National Commission maintains local committees at the province capitals as well as at the capitals of national territories. These local committees, besides making more effective the governmental control over the administration of the libraries, try to promote local interest on the part of the people or of the local governments through official grants and other facilities.

The more substantial way in which governments help popular libraries in Argentina is through the provision of books. To this effect the budget of the Commission provides either for the supplying of libraries with free books or for the duplication of any sum—up to a certain limit—that any incorporated library may devote to the buying of books. Last year the Commission distributed 217,000 volumes, 20 per cent of which were free books.

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To a certain extent the sending of free books by the Commission has helped the domestic book output, for the Commission not only buys appreciable quantities of works written by Argentine authors, but it often approves manuscripts and contracts for the acquiring of a certain number of copies of the books when published, and even suggests the writing of books on that basis, particularly on subjects dealing with education and other matters of public interest.

The importance of the Argentine free libraries varies with the size of the communities they serve. In some centers they are housed in splendid buildings, and in such cases the popular library functions as a social center and as a place for art exhibitions, public lectures, etc. The Popular Library of Bahia Blanca, a city 400 miles south of Buenos Aires, almost bordering Patagonia, owes its existence to a local benefactor, Luis C. Caronti, and such is also the case with many other of these institutions throughout Argentina.

The best organized popular libraries are also circulating. Unfortunately, librarianship as a profession has not yet conquered Argentine public opinion. There are no library schools deserving description—only isolated university courses here and there. But the need of better library methods is frequently voiced by librarians as well as by that section of the community of readers interested in the modern library movement.

AUSTRIA

BY DR. MAXIMILIAN MAYER, MINISTERIALRAT

TRANSLATED BY DR. PAUL N. DENGLER,

DIRECTOR, AUSTRO-AMERICAN INSTITUTE

OF EDUCATION

PREVIOUS to the war, Austrian libraries were well developed and included many forms. However, during the war, in common with most of the cultural institutions, the libraries suffered severely. At the close of the war, general educational interest was again awakened and as a principal phase of this, public libraries were the objects of special attention and were completely renovated. The State authorized a department of the Ministry of Education to supervise free education; separate supervisors of public instruction were appointed for the federal provinces; and financial support was provided for in the budget for the assistance and furtherance of public libraries. The financial assistance was only moderate, averaging from 40,000 to 46,000 schillings per year in the period between 1926 and 1931. Nevertheless, it was possible with this aid to organize in Vienna a number of model libraries under state control for the purpose of study and to gain experience in actual library management. Likewise, a periodical, *Public Education* (edited by the Austrian *Bundesverlag*), was founded, which still continues to be published. Moreover, with this financial aid it has been possible to control continuously the development of a great many public libraries, to establish new libraries, and to adapt old ones to the embodiment of modern principles of library management.

As there are no regular state, provincial or communal libraries in Austria, nearly all of those which exist are either in the hands of pri-

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vate organizations or under the control of various associations of workers. Consequently, these libraries are subject only to indirect control, usually through the medium of subventions, contributions and advice. A special effort was made to provide a corps of technically trained librarians by providing a number of special courses for library managers. These work without pay and their library duties are only supplementary to their full-time professions. Between 1925 and 1931, one hundred and fifty such courses were held by the Ministry of Education in Vienna and by its supervising officers. In addition, the libraries also were visited periodically and counsel was given concerning their operation. As a result, at this time, the greater proportion of the libraries in the federal provinces are already under the advisory control of the supervisors of public instruction. In this way, it has been possible to adapt at least a part of the libraries, particularly in the smaller towns and villages, to the specific needs of the local population. Furthermore, it has been possible to eliminate many valueless or harmful books, to reduce foreign influence to a minimum, and, although strictly preserving the individual character of these libraries, to create general standards which will make possible a uniform basis for their future development. Supplementing this, the making of inventories and the sending out of questionnaires has been contemplated as it has been felt that the information to be obtained in this way may be valuable for the successful continuation of systematic work. This entire program has been seriously endangered, however, through the complete stoppage of all government subsidies.

At present, the situation is about as follows: In Vienna, with a population of 1,842,000, all libraries but two are under the control of the following organizations: *Verein Zentralbibliothek* or Association of Central Libraries; *Oesterreichischer Büchereiverband*, or Austrian Union of Libraries; *Wiener Volksbildungsverein*, or Vienna Association for Public Education; *Deutscher Schulverein 'Südmark'*, or German Union of Schools 'Südmark,' and *Bildungszentrale der sozialdemokratischen Arbeiterpartei*, or Central Educational Organization of the Social-Democratic Labor party. The two libraries which are not

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under the control of those organizations are the *Wertheimstein* Library of Vienna, with approximately 15,000 volumes, 1,200 readers per month and an average of between 80 and 90 readers per day, and the Model Library of the Ministry of Education, with 3,874 volumes, 1,260 readers per month, or a total of 24,680 for the year 1931. This latter library has a special department for juvenile readers.

The Association of Central Libraries (*Verein Zentralbibliothek*) has its principal library in Vienna. This has been rebuilt to conform to all modern requirements and serves a regular body of 15,065 readers who take an average annual number of 1,750,000 volumes. Of these readers, 30 per cent take non-esthetic material. This library has seventeen branches in Vienna and two outside the city in Lower Austria. It contains a total of 598,000 books. A music department is maintained in connection with the principal library. No partisan political or religious material is allowed in any of its establishments.

In the Austrian Union of Libraries (*Oesterreichischer Buchereiverband*), in Vienna, organized in 1932, are represented the heretofore independent *Volkslesehalle*, or Public Reading Club; the *Katholischer Leseverein für alle Stände*, or Catholic Reading Club for all classes; and the *Katholischer Bibliotheks- und Leseverein*, or Catholic Library and Reading Club. This Union now controls 64 libraries in various communal districts of Vienna, with a total of 686,000 volumes. During 1932, it loaned 2,650,000 books. In addition, a new library is now being organized which will contain 16,000 volumes. Supplementing the distribution of books, this organization also holds regular courses for the training of library managers, and a special committee is maintained to select books and to offer counsel when necessary. This is a Catholic organization.

Twelve libraries are controlled by the Vienna Association for Public Education (*Wiener Volksbildungsverein*), with a total of 180,000 books. These branch libraries are situated in the various communal districts of Vienna. They have a total of 101,044 readers who take a yearly total of 487,810 books, ten per cent of whom read non-esthetic material. They are non-partisan and are run, as far as economic conditions will

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permit, after the model of the *Leipziger Bucherhallen*, or Leipzig public libraries. The selection of books is handled by a special committee.

A model library embodying all the latest developments is being prepared for opening in 1933 by the German Union of Schools 'Südmark' (*Deutscher Schulverein 'Südmark'*). This organization now maintains five libraries in Vienna, although its principal activities are in the federal provinces where it maintains 386 libraries with a total of 174,000 books. In addition, it maintains a system of circulating libraries which at present comprizes 100 units with a total of 4500 volumes.

The Vienna workers' libraries are provided by the Central Educational Organization of the Social-Democratic Labor party, (*Bildungszentrale der sozialdemokratischen Arbeiterpartei*). Its report for 1932 mentions 69 delivery offices in representative parts of the city from which a total of 216,000 volumes of esthetic, 47,103 of social scientific, and 30,487 of natural historical, material were distributed. In 1932, there were 46,410 regular readers who borrowed a total of 2,316,749 books, of whom 12 per cent read scientific works. Regular courses are offered by this organization for the training of librarians. The purchase of books and the preparation of lists and catalogs is in the hands of a special committee. In addition to the communal district libraries, this organization also maintains a number of special trade-union libraries: one for hotel workers, one for employees in the hat industry, one for street-railway men, and one for workers in the graphic arts. It also maintains a large number of house libraries in the larger Vienna community tenement houses. This organization is run on strictly social-democratic principles.

Taking the average of all the public libraries in Vienna, it is found that they are being used by from eight to ten per cent of the total population. This is a relatively high percentage.

Different conditions prevail in the Austrian provinces outside of Vienna. On the one hand, municipal aid is possible only in the larger cities. On the other hand, an extremely variegated population demands much greater individualization on the part of the smaller local libraries to cope with local requirements. In these cases a centralized manage-

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ment is probably considered a handicap, rather than otherwise. In the provinces, therefore, are found predominantly parochial and club libraries. In the cases where they are managed from a central organization, each unit, as far as possible, is permitted almost complete autonomy.

In Lower Austria, with 1,471,000 inhabitants, there are 1000 public libraries. Of these, the Lower Austrian Association for Public Education (*Niederösterreichischer Volksbildungsverein*), in Krems o/ Danube, controls about 200, and the German Union of Schools 'Südmark' (*Deutscher Schulverein 'Südmark'*), 14 libraries. In the larger industrial centers, the community takes charge of the administration of public libraries. Elsewhere, they belong to the vicarage, the school, or to a local club. The total number of books available in these libraries is estimated to be approximately 300,000, and the number of readers between four and ten per cent of the total population.

About 400 libraries are at present under the jurisdiction of the supervisors of public instruction. These supervisors are also responsible for the training of librarians through courses of instruction, regular advice and the preparation of selection lists which are provided for by the work community.

Similar conditions prevail in Upper Austria with 857,325 inhabitants; in Styria, with 946,721 inhabitants; and in Salzburg, with 213,877. These three provinces have a total of 1200 libraries. About one half of these may be considered as quite advanced in the application of modern scientific methods. They are also active in promoting serious scientific activity. Organizations of workers and clerks are also active in stimulating development along these lines. This is particularly the case in Carinthia, with 366,589 inhabitants, where the organization of workers and clerks in Klagenfurt and St. Veit organized standard institutions. In the Tyrol, with 306,153 inhabitants, there are 52 parochial, 59 club and 33 workers' and clerks' organizations' libraries with a total of 90,000 volumes. These libraries are used by exactly six per cent of the provincial population. In Vorarlberg, with a population of 133,000, statistical data were available for 30 out of the 100 libraries. These have

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a total of 32,000 books, are used by 69,000 individuals per year and have about 3,500 readers. The Burgenland, with 300,000 inhabitants, has established a provincial library at Eisenstadt. This opened in 1930 and already contains about 7,000 volumes and has approximately 1,000 readers. There are, in addition, 125 smaller libraries in the Burgenland, which contain a total of about 14,000 volumes.

There are, altogether, in the Austrian federal provinces, exclusive of Vienna, about 3,000 public libraries which contain from six to eight hundred thousand volumes and are read by an average of six per cent of the total population.

BELGIUM

BY CHARLES DEPASSE, INSPECTOR OF LIBRARIES

AT THE MINISTRY OF SCIENCE AND ARTS, BRUSSELS

TRANSLATED BY RACHEL SEDEYN,

HEAD OF THE ART REFERENCE DEPARTMENT,

PRATT INSTITUTE FREE LIBRARY, BROOKLYN, N. Y.

IT IS a generally accepted fact that in our country the first libraries consisted of private collections of books. They were owned by the Roman families who soon after Caesar's conquest of Gaul built their villas in the section of Europe now called Belgium. These treasures might easily have been lost forever during the upheavals of the Middle Ages and chiefly during the barbarous invasions of the fifth century. Fortunately, however, "the human mind, beaten by the storms, took refuge in its churches and monasteries."¹

"Except for the monks employed in tilling the soil, penmanship was included in all the monastic rules. Chiefly was this true for the rules of St. Benedict."² At first monasteries and bishops alone had copyists. Later the large towns had theirs also.

"At Saint-Martin (Tournai) under the Abbot Odon, twelve monks were kept busy transcribing old works. Such was the care and accuracy displayed that other institutions borrowed their books in order to revise their own copies."³

As early as the thirteenth century the University of Paris engaged numerous scribes. During the fourteenth century the kings, the princes and chiefly the Dukes of Burgundy had theirs. Philip the Good sent

¹ Guizot. *Histoire de la civilisation*.

² Rambaud, A. *Histoire de la civilisation française*, vol. 1, p. 349.

³ Lebon, L. *Histoire de l'enseignement populaire en Belgique*, p. 128.

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his to various countries from which they came back with many a manuscript copied on the spot.

In this way numerous libraries began; each cathedral or diocesan school had its own. There were also important libraries in the monasteries, of which the most famous were those of St. Martin of Tournai, of Saint-Trond de Lobbes, of Gembloux, of Stavelot, of Saint-Jacques in Liège, of Sept-Fontaines, of Saint Bavon and St. Pierre in Ghent.

We are told that Petrarch, the celebrated writer of the *Canzoniere* in honor of the beautiful Laura, was very much impressed by the wealth of manuscripts he found in Liège.⁴

Philip the Good had perhaps the finest library of the time, and it is he who began the collection now housed in the Royal Library of Brussels. It is during his reign⁵ that printing began to be known, although it was not definitely established before the time of his son, Charles the Bold.

Remains to be mentioned also the importance during the fifteenth century of the printing of pictures—chiefly of the religious picture—and the influence, in typography, of the *Frères de la vie commune*.

Our first printers were Thierry Martens of Alost (in 1473); Jean de Westphalie of Louvain (1474); Colard Mansion of Bruges (in 1476).

From 1500 on, books and libraries became more numerous.

It is usually said that the first public library in Belgium (1772) came into existence on the day when Maria Theresa opened to the outside world the collections assembled by her predecessors, known as the "Library of the Dukes of Burgundy."

According to Namur,⁶ however, Antwerp had its first public library as early as 1609, Ghent in 1633, Louvain in 1636. He makes the following statement in a footnote: "It appears that Antwerp had a library as early as 1480. It was housed in the City Hall, but the books were dispersed and lost sight of. A second library was started in 1505. It had the

⁴ Namur, P. Histoire des bibliothèques publiques en Belgique.

⁵ Musée du Livre (Bruxelles). Histoire du Livre et de l'Imprimerie en Belgique des Origines à nos jours.

⁶ Namur, P. Histoire des bibliothèques publiques en Belgique, vol. 2, p. 9 and 10.

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same fate, due this time to the destruction of Antwerp during the wars of the 16th century."

Liège also had its public library (1732). It was housed in one of the wings of the City Hall, and contained 729 books.⁷

Various factors explain the development of libraries at that time. It was due partly to the growth of printing (in Antwerp 1202 volumes were printed between 1500 and 1540),⁸ also to the influence in Ghent and Louvain of Erycius Puteanus.⁹ Before succeeding Juste Lipse in the Latin chair of the University of Louvain, he had witnessed the beginnings of the Ambrosian Library in Milan, and had seen it becoming, in 1608, a public library. He brought back from there the idea of throwing open to the public collections of books which hitherto had been inaccessible.

The case of Antwerp and Louvain led other cities to follow suit.

From that time on, the libraries looked very much as they do now: books grouped on the shelves, catalogs arranged by subjects. Borrowing was only exceptionally granted.

Although there were, as we have seen, some public libraries already in existence, the greater number were still at that date attached to monasteries and princely houses.

Following a report of the Paris Committee of Public Education (*Comité d'Instruction Publique de Paris*) on the situation of the public libraries at that time, the National Convention decreed (1792-1795) "that the books and manuscripts belonging to ecclesiastical communities, and to persons condemned to death, would be confiscated and added to the books of State libraries already in existence."

Also, "there shall be close to every school, a public library and a small museum of natural history."¹⁰

In virtue of this law, popular education was organized in every section of the republic. The administrators of the departments situated in

⁷ See Catalogue at the Bibliothèque centrale, rue des Chiroux, at Liège (Fonds liégeois).

⁸ Musée du Livre. Histoire du Livre et de l'Imprimerie en Belgique.

⁹ Namur, P. Histoire des bibliothèques publiques en Belgique.

¹⁰ Foulon, L. Contribution à l'histoire des bibliothèques publiques en Belgique. (Revue de l'Université, Dec. 1924 et Janvier 1925.)

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Belgium collected the books and manuscripts from the communities which had been suppressed.

The library of Brussels became municipal in 1803, the one in Louvain in 1805, of Liège in 1804. The latter at that time had already 15,000 volumes; it was passed on to the University in 1817.

The Royal Library of Brussels was founded by the law of January 18, 1837, which granted the purchase of the Van Hulthem library of Ghent; in 1838 were added the manuscripts of the Burgundy library and the medals belonging to the State.

Even before the Revolution of 1830 there existed in Namur, Brussels, Mons and Liège Societies of Encouragement that worked in connection with elementary education. Founded by the Dutch government in 1825, they helped, amongst other things, to secure at very low cost school materials and worth-while books.

In 1838 the number of books printed or bought by the Society of Liège was as high as 452,916, of which 304,088 had been given out.

The influence of those societies was strongest between the years 1830-1860.¹¹

The well-being of the masses being the great preoccupation of the middle of the nineteenth century, we see Ducpetiaux, in Brussels, propose the establishment of public libraries, in which free courses and lectures would be given. Although not carried out during his lifetime, his ideas were not forgotten. During those years, the libraries of Verviers (1848), of Ardenne (1848), of Furnes (1849), of Vracene (1849), were opened.

From 1850 to 1862 very few new libraries were started.

In a circular dated September 13, 1862, Vanden Peereboom, Minister of the Interior, expressed his hope "to see in every parish (*commune*) and next door to the school, a public library (*bibliothèque populaire*), its natural adjunct."

Thanks to his intervention, a good many libraries were started at that time—mostly in the thickly populated centres—as well as numerous school libraries (*bibliothèques scolaires*) which later on became

¹¹ Pellisson. Les bibliothèques populaires à l'étranger et en France (1906), p. 102.

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communal public libraries (*bibliothèques publiques communales*).

The Teaching League¹² (*Ligue de l'Enseignement*) was organized in Brussels the 26th of December, 1864. "It has for its aim the spreading and improving of education in Belgium. It uses all the legal means at its disposal . . . more particularly does it favor the setting up of public libraries (*bibliothèques populaires*)."

The League began by granting an initial sum of fifty francs to every library that requested it. Later (1874), finding that the money was not always satisfactorily used, it sent the corresponding amount in books. This method, however, proved not to be entirely successful.

In 1898, Mr. Nyns-La Gye, whose name is closely connected with the libraries founded by the Teaching League, wrote in Bulletin No. 2 the following statement: "Of all these efforts, very little remains, a number of these libraries having functioned for only a very short period."

As a result of Mr. Nyns-La Gye's proposal, the League decided to establish traveling libraries, in order that the books read by one group of readers might be passed on to those to whom they were new.

In 1889 three such libraries were started. There are seventy-three in existence today (ten were destroyed during the German occupation). The number of books in one box varies from 115 to 145. Children, young people and adults have each their share. The books are chosen primarily for their general educational value.

As they prove to be the most economical and render the maximum of service, the traveling libraries have been in general use ever since. And from the day when local needs began to be considered as well, they have worked out to the satisfaction of all concerned.

The Teaching League, however, works only in the French section of Belgium. With this in mind, the Willemsfonds, organized in 1851, takes care of the Flemish population. It also publishes books which it presents to its affiliated libraries, and it lends small traveling collections.

Besides these two strong national organizations, another Flemish

¹² See Statuts et Bulletins: No. 2 (Mars-Avril 1899); No. 2 (Mars-Avril 1901); No. 1 (Janvier-Février 1904).

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association, the Davidsfonds, was organized in 1875. Its readers are drawn entirely from the Roman Catholic section of the community.

Two local associations, one in the vicinity of Verviers (*les Soirées populaires*), the other near Liège (*les Cercles Franklin*), organized as far back as 1830, are operating small libraries as well as giving series of lectures.

The *Annuaire statistique de la Belgique* of 1901 mentions the existence in 1899 of 606 public libraries. There were also at that time 1994 school libraries (see *Le Rapport triennal sur la situation de l'instruction primaire*, 1897, 1898, 1899).

Although the number of libraries mentioned is no doubt correct, nothing is said as to their importance and intrinsic value.

In 1911 the Socialist party (*le Parti Ouvrier Belge*) opened for the education of its members a combination of central club and headquarters known as the *Centrale d'Education ouvrière*. It operates in Socialist club houses scattered over the country, classes, courses of lectures and libraries.

In the following year the Socialist libraries had both French and Flemish offices.

During the war, occupied Belgium and its unemployed men and women began to use the libraries as they never had done before. Soon the books were too few to supply the demands.

As a result of this, an association known as *Le Comité Central des oeuvres de lecture populaire* was formed in 1915. The three political parties were represented on this committee, which, thanks to the money provided by the Commission for Relief in Belgium, organized at once 950 traveling libraries of 95 books each.¹³

Soon after the war important social reforms took place, among which was the eight-hour day.

In 1920, the problems of national reconstruction brought about a three-party ministry, in which Mr. Jules Destrée became the Minister of Sciences and Arts. Concerned about the way the working classes were

¹³ This Committee is no longer in existence. The traveling libraries have been bought by the State and are today national traveling libraries.

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to use their leisure time, Mr. Destrée saw the need of a law that would put the public libraries in a position to perform their new mission. To that effect he presented a bill which became a law. In connection with his bill the minister wrote as follows:

"To me, the library has always been the natural adjunct of the school. The development of the public library must thus be foremost in the mind of the legislator. This is specially true today, for

(1) "No national reconstruction can take place if not based on intellectual reconstruction.

(2) "The eight-hour day" means eight hours of leisure, and this reform would only be half satisfactory if, after having stopped the excessive factory hours, we were not to secure useful and healthy relaxation.

(3) "The high price of books makes them prohibitive to many people."

The unanimous passage of the law was primarily due to the care Destrée took not to hurt the feelings of any of the various religious and political groups in the country.

In it are clearly stated what conditions must be fulfilled by any organization to get a state grant, as well as the nature and importance of such subsidies.

Before the existence of the law, in 1921, the situation of public libraries in Belgium (as shown by Mr. Heyman, the present Minister of Labor, then recorder of the law) was as follows:

"Out of 1404 various libraries, practically all of them insufficiently organized, about a half (625) had three hundred volumes, 1180 had fewer than 1000 books, only 178 had from 1000 to 3000 volumes."

The following statistics show clearly the improvements brought about since the application of the law.

Years	No. of libraries recognized by the State	Number of volumes	Number of readers	Number of books read
1922	1370	1,540,547		2,686,313
1923	1637	2,205,000		3,525,000
1924	1882	2,550,000	347,000	4,595,000

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Years	No. of libraries recognized by the State	Number of volumes	Number of readers	Number of books read
1925	1950	2,837,713	444,265	5,352,661
1926	2061	3,071,314	485,398	6,219,194
1927	2131	3,339,680	505,259	6,740,926
1928	2154	3,615,494	517,822	7,518,630
1929	2188	3,815,002	585,426	7,181,437

The following principles have been definitely established by the law:

1. Material help; state regulation of the librarian's salary; grants in books in proportion to the amount of interest shown by the libraries; extra subsidies to improve buildings and furniture. Moral help: Advice given by the inspecting body.

2. Help granted to every public library as soon as it meets the legal requirements, regardless of whether it is a communal, a free, or an adopted library. To make people read and to guide that reading so that it may contribute to the general education of the masses—that is the final aim of the law.

3. Freedom in the actual choice of books, so long as the money is not spent for literature that is seditious, valueless educationally, or containing religious or political propaganda and controversy.

4. The obligation laid upon the administrative board of every commune to establish, if asked by one-fifth of the electoral body, within three months of the request, a communal public library, if no recognized library exists already.

5. Absolute obligation for the administrative board of the commune to subsidize the communal and adopted public libraries.

6. Prohibition of the suppression, without royal consent, of a public library either communal or adopted (which renders the suppression practically impossible).

7. Necessity for the librarian to have acquired his certificate.

8. Prohibition of all propaganda work, either political, philosophical or religious. Obligation to carry out exclusively a work of education for all. As to the books themselves, they must correspond to the need of the readers.

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9. Organization of an inspecting body, whose first mission, besides administrative supervision, is to aid the librarian in the choice of books.

The help given by the State is clearly shown by the following list, in which the annual budget is given.

Years	Libraries recognized	Subsidies granted in books (in francs)	Subsidies granted to librarians (in francs)
1922	1370	600,000	315,300
1923	1637	600,000	369,875
1924	1882	600,000	434,271
1925	1950	600,000	457,663
1926	2061	850,000	485,700
1927	2131	850,000	505,200
1928	2154	1,150,000	564,005
1929	2188	1,250,000	905,000
1930	— ¹⁴	1,500,000	— ¹⁴

The smallest amount received was 510 francs in 1929, the maximum per library, 2,200 francs.

A good many readers get their books elsewhere than from official public libraries—from public libraries not recognized by the state; from circulating libraries connected with bookshops; from the libraries attached to universities, academies, musical schools, industrial and professional schools; from libraries belonging to various groups of teachers; from libraries attached to clubs, to circles, etc.

To show still better the importance of the public library movement certain facts may be noted. In 1930, the following amounts were contributed by the provinces to the support of libraries:

Flandre Occidentale: 138,000 frs.

Flandre Orientale: 100,000 frs.

Province de Brabant: 40,000 frs.

Province d'Anvers: 500,000 frs.

Province de Hainaut: 190,000 frs. (Publishing of a review *Savoir et Beauté*)

Province de Liège: in kind: 50,000 frs. The services of a circulating library which sends twice a year a hundred bound volumes to the libraries asking for them; two reviews, *Notices Bibliographiques*, and *Instruire, Distraire*.

¹⁴ Information not given.

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Province de Namur: 10,000 frs.

Province de Limbourg: 48,000 frs.

Province de Luxembourg: 2,000 frs.

The distribution is made differently in the different provinces.¹⁵

Many communal administrations give to their libraries a far greater help than the law requires. For example, the town of Liège buys every year for one of its communal libraries 100,000 francs' worth of books. Antwerp spent for the purchase and upkeep of the books in its communal libraries 335,000 francs in 1930.

The public libraries may also, up to a certain point, benefit from aid given by the various organizations mentioned below:¹⁶

Bibliothèques agricoles et horticoles: du ministère de l'Agriculture

Office des classes moyennes: du même ministère

Bibliothèques itinérantes de la Ligue de l'Enseignement

Willemsfonds

Dauidsfonds

Bibliothèque itinérante provinciale de Liège

Bibliothèque itinérante provinciale du Hainaut

Associations and clubs of librarians include the following:

Offices nationaux (français et flamand) des bibliothèques socialistes, avec deux revues mensuelles (monthly): celle de la langue française, *Les Cahiers du Bibliothécaire*, de la langue flamande, *De Bibliothécaris*.

Fédération nationale des bibliothèques Catholiques, avec deux revues mensuelles: *Revue des Auteurs et des Livres* et *Boekengids*.

Cercle (flamand) des bibliothécaires et employés de bibliothèques, avec une revue mensuelle: *Bibliothekgids*.

Fédération provinciale des bibliothèques publiques du Luxembourg.

Cercle des bibliothécaires et des Amis des Livres (province de Liège).

Société (A.S.B.L.) "Les Amis des Bibliothèques publiques."

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¹⁶ For details, consult the *Library annual* for 1931.

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a. des conférences cantonales d'instituteurs.
b. des écoles normales.
Ouvrage inscrit au catalogue des publications que le Gouvernement recommande comme:
1. livres à signaler aux professeurs.
2. livres à placer dans les bibliothèques des professeurs, dans les établissements officiels d'enseignement moyen.

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¹⁷ This book is going to have a Flemish edition, brought down to date and complete Translation of L. Van Molle, 1931, Brussels, 12 rue des Colonies, Ed. Labor. 20frs.

BULGARIA

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BULGARIAN libraries helped to make Bulgarian history, but records that have come down to us from early days are exasperatingly scarce. The gaps are many, the fragments few, but the suggestion of the whole—alluring.

Did the pagan Bulgarian have books and libraries? We do not know, yet with lines and notches those old pagan Bulgarians wrote and read, therefore books and libraries of some sort they surely had.

The first documentary records of Bulgarian libraries come to us from the ninth century, when good Tzar Boris together with his people embraced Christianity. To consolidate the new faith, he founded monasteries, peopled them with learned monks and inaugurated the making of Bulgarian books. The multiplication of libraries and books, both devout and others, was one of the chief cares and the chief delight of Tzar Boris' successor—the great Tzar Siméon—the most learned Bulgarian and one of the most learned Europeans of his day. "Lover of books," learned contemporaries called him; "Founder of libraries," we moderns would dub him. Alas, nothing remains of those rich monastic libraries he delighted to build for his people—nothing but faint testimonies that the invader in 971 failed to destroy.

More direct and abundant proofs of libraries, still predominantly monastic, have come down to us from the days of the second Bulgarian kingdom (1186-1396), particularly during Patriarch Eftimii's lifetime.

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But the five dark centuries (1396-1878) that followed swept away all vestige of their existence, for Bulgaria fell under a double yoke—the political yoke of the Moslem and the spiritual yoke of the Greek. The libraries and books that survived the frenzied onslaught in the name of Allah were later subjected to systematic destruction, particularly in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, when all forces seemed bent on wiping out Bulgaria and the Bulgarians from the face of the earth.

First came the Krjalis. During their 16 years' reign of terror the monks of some monasteries interred their book treasures for safety's sake and to this day the secret of their hiding place lies buried with their custodians. Then followed the Greek revolt, when Bulgarian books, as well as Bulgarian people,¹ became suspect and, to save their parishioners, the priests themselves burned every book that might be considered by the Turks to contain seditious matter. The worst was yet to come. The Phanariotes started a systematic destruction of Bulgarian manuscripts and historical records. In the meantime, ever since the fifteenth century, travellers and book hunters had been carrying away many a precious manuscript; and, fortunate it is they did, for these are now preserved in the great libraries and museums of Europe and constitute the bulk of all that remains of the richest of old Slavic manuscript collections.

In the nineteenth century Bulgarian libraries were called to life again by the three edicts² of sultans Moustafa III and Abd-ul-Mejid, the Greek and Servian propaganda and various other foreign influences. The edicts granted Bulgarians a certain measure of privileges, and they were sufficient to inspire Bulgarians, particularly the artisans and tradesmen, with a desire for education. Thus were started newspaper reading and discussion circles in the coffee houses. As teachers were not supposed to remain in the coffee houses, these read-

¹ Bulgarians took a very active part in the liberation of Greece.

² These granted Bulgarians privileges hitherto accorded only to Moslems: professional rights to artisans and traders, the right to own land and form societies and provisions for a certain measure of local autonomy.

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ings were soon transferred to the schoolroom or to rooms specially rented for the purpose. Bulgarian immigrants and traders coming in contact with more advanced European nations brought back new ideas to their country. Bulgarian public libraries had already been founded in Russia—in 1852 at St. Petersburg and in 1854 at Odessa. Besides, the 2000 Magyar and Polish refugees who escaped to Bulgaria in 1849 with their leaders, Kossuth, Dembinski and Bern, must have exercised some influence, however slight. During their brief sojourn in Lom, Vidin and Shoumen they organized a kind of reading room for themselves. It is significant that these three towns claim the honour of having established in 1856 the first modern public libraries in Bulgaria.

In the meantime, Greece and Servia started an energetic, organized propaganda in Bulgaria, flooding the regions along the boundary, and particularly the Macedonian district, with Servian and Greek literature and teachers. The newly-born libraries braced themselves to defend Bulgaria's languages and nationality and took upon themselves the task of checking this projected denationalization. The libraries soon became powerful centers for culture, promoters of economic and professional progress and leaders in the struggle for religious and political freedom.

In those days the public libraries were miniature departments of education, for it was they who appointed and examined prospective teachers, inspected schools, presided over annual examinations, distributed prizes, provided poor students with textbooks and clothing, granted fellowships to promising, but poor, students, created the teaching staff and founded the Bulgarian Academy of Science at Braila with the intention of transforming it, after the liberation, into a national library. The plans for a national university and ethnographical museum, which were taken up by the libraries with enthusiasm, were never carried out. The war of liberation intervened and after that the state put these plans into execution.

Being "of the people," managed "by the people" and existing "for the people," the public libraries took an active part in the everyday life of the Bulgarians and paved the way for future democracy. It was

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not uncommon for the public libraries of those years to participate in commercial enterprises. Libraries even went further; they gave credit to producers and became the first credit institutions of Bulgaria.

Bulgaria's national drama and theatre, too, were fostered within the walls of the libraries. Theatricals became popular with the libraries as a source of income and with the people as a source of amusement.

But the libraries' greatest and most far-reaching achievement was the preservation of the Bulgarian nationality and language, the winning of religious freedom from the Greeks, and political freedom from the Turks. Hence their urge for establishing native schools with native teachers and native textbooks. The first 483 printed books were with few exceptions textbooks. Hence their motto "Bulgarian churches for Bulgarians"—a motto they successfully carried out. Hence, also, their transformation into revolutionary centers in the name of freedom. Levski, the apostle of Bulgarian freedom, urged the founding of public libraries for freedom's sake, and in response new libraries sprang up, and old ones revived, being transformed overnight into revolutionary centers. To facilitate concerted action in 1871 a peasant of Zlataritsa suggested a union of the public libraries in the Tirnovo county. The Stara Zagora Public Library broadened the idea and the National Union of Public Libraries, under the leadership of the Constantinople library, came into being. *Tchitalishté*, founded in 1870 as the official organ of the National Library Union, immediately obtained 1700 subscriptions and gave fresh impetus to the public library movement. In the seventies enthusiasm was rampant, but short-lived, for library activities were checked by succeeding events. With the betrayal of Levski, the suspicion of the Turkish government fell heavily upon the public libraries and paralyzed them. Diversity of opinion among library members themselves in regard to the manner of conducting the struggle for political independence, together with the hostile attitude towards the libraries of the revolutionary leaders, Boteff and Karaveloff, furthered their stagnation. Finally came the death blow of the April revolt in 1876, followed by events that brought at last the liberation of Bulgaria in 1878.

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After the liberation the various activities that had been concentrated in the public libraries were distributed among the departments of state, and the most able library members were naturally employed in the general reconstruction of the country.

Just as the libraries were getting adjusted to the new state of affairs, the Balkan wars of 1912-13 and the Great War of 1914-18 completely arrested their development. It was not until the passage of the Public Libraries Act in 1917 that the number of public libraries doubled and trebled.

At the time of the liberation Bulgaria had some 100 libraries, at the eve of the wars, in 1911, 620; in 1928, after the passing of the Act, 1888; today there are 2684 registered public libraries. Of these 2208 (133 town and 2075 village libraries) are active institutions with 115,686 readers—105,220 men and 10,466 women.³ Their income amounted during 1930 to 54,236,222 leva⁴ (24,280,204 leva for the town libraries and 29,956,018 for the village libraries). The largest source of income for the town libraries are the picture shows and theatricals (10,107,940 leva against the 3,217,631 leva of the village libraries), while landed property furnishes the bulk of the village libraries' revenue (9,740,744 leva against the 4,232,221 leva of the town libraries). The subsidies from the state, county and township councils, school boards and cooperative societies amount to 5,866,592 leva (2,715,687 leva for town libraries and 3,150,905 leva for village libraries), various donations, to 1,283,248 leva, almost equally divided between the town and village libraries. The total contents of the 2208 libraries during 1930 was only about 1,154,168 volumes. Circulation statistics, particularly in the villages, are disappointing and point to what appears to be an inherent weakness of the Bulgarian public libraries. But one should bear in mind that the average output of Bulgarian books fluctuates between 2500 and 3000 volumes per annum, that the overwhelming majority of Bulgarian li-

³ For detailed library statistics for 1930 the reader is referred to the *Statistical year-book of the Bulgarian kingdom*, Vol. XXIV, 1932, from which the following figures have been drawn.

⁴ A lev (plural leva) is about seven-tenths of a cent.

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brarians have had no professional training, that those with any professional training at all have passed only brief summer courses and, finally, that out of the total 3187 (241 women and 2946 men) constituting the entire library staff of the 2208 libraries only 857 draw salaries, while the remaining 2330—mostly village teachers—give their services free.

With the exception of some 227, Bulgarian libraries do not own their buildings, yet only 649 pay rent—1332 are housed free in schools and in private, municipal or state-owned premises. There is no national type of library architecture. The provisions of the Public Libraries Act of 1927 will undoubtedly hasten the creation of one.

One hundred and thirty libraries have either specially built or adapted auditoriums, seating a total of 30,982 people. During 1930, 1580 libraries organized 8091 lectures, drawing a total of 832,747 people, 622,242 of whom constitute village audiences.

Since the Public Libraries Act of 1917 exempts from taxation entertainments, theatricals, picture shows, etc., given by public libraries, they are especially popular.

Bulgarian public library legislation is of recent date. Earlier acts have now been superseded by the Public Libraries Act of 1927. The chief merit of the latter lies in its provision for the maintenance of public libraries, which explains the rapid growth of libraries after 1927. The act provides each library with such portion of surveyed land as the township may set aside for it; 50 decares [of land] from the "state land reserve" in territories having such lands and five per cent of the income of the schools' landed property. The revenue accruing from these sources can be expended only as follows: 50 per cent for books, selected from a book list approved by the Ministry of Public Education; 30 per cent to be added to a library building fund (when a library has already a building of its own, this may be used for other purposes with the sanction of the Ministry of Public Education) and 20 per cent for current library expenses. Membership dues, net proceeds of theatricals, picture shows, etc., may be expended in accordance with the decisions of the General Meeting of library members.

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Poor libraries are subsidized from a fund instituted at the Ministry of Public Education and consisting of the annual deposits from municipalities, annual subsidies from the Ministry of Public Education itself and various donations.

Administratively every public library is *persona juridica*. Its affairs are governed by an elected library committee and, in accordance with its by-laws, confirmed by the Ministry of Public Education. A supreme council under the chairmanship of the Minister of Public Education meets once a year to deal with general public library schemes and problems.

From the modern library point of view Bulgarian public libraries are rather primitive. They are usually organized according to the librarian's own ideas.

Books for home use are given only to members of the libraries, who pay a monthly membership fee of one to five leva.

The reading rooms are open to non-members but only members can be borrowers. Students pay only half of the fee of adults. Some of the libraries are maintained by membership fees mainly, which is of course very inadequate.

The catalogues, not infrequently serving as accession books as well, are usually of the book form type. Classification of books is practically nonexistent.

The open-shelf system is not practiced, the only instances being found in a few reorganized school libraries, and in the Library of the School of Cooperative Studies. The charging of books is cumbersome and antiquated, receipts or book registers being used. The public library draws the bulk of its readers from the senior high school student body, and, unfortunately, upon graduation these students cease to patronize the library. The absence of children's libraries may be accounted for by the lack of trained librarians, as well as juvenile literature in the past. The latter, thanks to the impulse given by the juvenile series first started by the Ministry of Public Education in 1925, has made remarkable progress during the last few years.

No library service without the walls of the library—in prisons, hos-

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pitals, asylums, etc.—has yet been attempted. The village public library furthers adult education and provides extensive lecture programmes. They are, however, still community social centers rather than libraries in the modern conception of the word. They are the sole centers of cultural and social life. The village theatre, hall, museum, restaurant or café is often housed in the library and operated by it.

There is now cordial relationship between the cooperative societies and the public libraries. During 1930 cooperative societies established and maintained fifteen libraries in places where there were none, housed free of charge 126 public libraries and gave half a million leva towards maintenance.

A National Union of Public Libraries, founded in April 1911, numbers today 1261 of the public libraries as members. The Union is governed by an annually elected board of managers. It has organized seven summer courses for librarians which, since 1928, have taught library technique. In addition to this, the Union secures for its members lecturers (public library lecturers travel free on the Bulgarian railroads), financial aid and educational films. It executes orders for books, dividing the commission with the libraries making the orders, organizes an annual national conference and promotes the organization of local county and township library unions' conferences. In 1929 the National Union laid the foundation of a public libraries cooperative society for procuring supplies, fittings, furniture and books. The Union publishes a monthly literary magazine—one of the best in the country—*Bulgarska Misl*,—and a library magazine, *Tchitalishté*, a continuation of its short-lived namesake of pre-liberation days.

Several county and township library unions issue local library periodicals.

The Ministry of Public Education in various ways tries to promote the advancement of public libraries. It appointed in 1926 its first library specialist and organized in 1928 the first of a series of library courses for senior high school librarians. It proposes to reorganize these libraries on a uniform system based upon the best Anglo-American methods.

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In 1930 the Ministry also organized the First International Library Exhibition at Sofia with the generous cooperation of the American Library Association, and of foreign libraries and firms. The fifty juvenile books sent by the American Library Association were a source of joy to old and young.

In 1929 the Ministry inaugurated the celebration of Book Day, which has already in its fourth year become a real national holiday.

There are four so-called national libraries in Bulgaria—in Sofia, Plovdiv, Tirnovo and Shoumen. They are all, the one in Sofia excepted, practically public libraries. Each receives by law one of the six copies of newly issued books deposited in the Library of Sofia.

Bulgarian public libraries have had a very thorny road to travel, for ever since the ninth century they have had to put the cause of their country above their own, to fight for the preservation of the Bulgarian tongue and for Bulgarian nationality. If they are, therefore, backward in their library methods, we are justified in overlooking this shortcoming in view of their glorious, unprecedented record in behalf of their country.

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CANADA

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I.

IN DISCUSSING Canadian public libraries we must consider each of the provinces separately. Public libraries are generally considered to be a part of a plan of public education, and education according to the constitution of Canada (The British North American Act) comes specifically under the jurisdiction of the provinces.

Some years ago a Canadian Library Association was formed with a skeleton organization, but it may be described as sleeping—not of course by way of disparagement. There is no Canadian library journal. There is, to be sure, the *Ontario Library Review*, which has now reached its seventeenth volume, published by the Public Libraries Branch of the Ontario Department of Education. There are two library schools in Canada, one connected with McGill University and financed by the Carnegie Corporation, the other administered by the Ontario College of Education and financed by the Ontario government. Hence, this chapter on the public library situation in Canada must be a review of the situation in each of the provinces.¹

¹ For a full and valuable account, see *Libraries in Canada*, a report by a Commission of Enquiry consisting of three Canadian librarians, and published by the Ryerson Press and the American Library Association in 1933.—*Editor*.

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II. THE MARITIME PROVINCES

NOVA SCOTIA, PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND, NEW BRUNSWICK

There are not many public libraries in Nova Scotia. There is no provincial Public Libraries Act, and, as a general rule, municipal councils everywhere are more keen to win a reputation for economy than to establish and maintain an educational institution. There is a collection of books in the City Hall at Halifax, but it is not kept up to date, and is little used. In Truro there is an active and well-managed little library, kept alive and vigorous only through the efforts of some public-spirited ladies of the town. Some years ago a library association for the province was organized.

In the latest report (for 1931) of the Superintendent of Education for the province, however, there is a reference to one of the most progressive moves recently made in library matters in Canada. It is really a system of county libraries with the schools as district centres, and the teachers as librarians. Boxes of books circulate from school to school, remaining at one school for two months. To quote the report:

"Some time ago the Department of Education adopted the policy of circulating libraries for each county. Last year such libraries were set up in the municipalities of Richmond, Guysboro, Hants, Queens and Clare. In all some 400 boxes, containing nearly 10,000 books, were placed in the rural schools of these counties for the benefit of the respective communities and the distribution will be continued until all the municipalities are supplied. Within the past few years approximately 120,000 volumes have thus been distributed by the Department, apart from the books provided by local effort."

It is doubtful if any other province in Canada can show a greater effort than this, to provide at its own cost library privileges for rural districts.

In Prince Edward Island there is no Public Libraries Act, and practically no public library, although in the capital, Charlottetown, there is a Legislative Library which is used by a number of the citizens.

It is reported in the daily press that the Carnegie Corporation has

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invited Dr. Lomer, Librarian of McGill University, to make a survey of the library situation on the Island, and to advise as to the steps that may be taken to improve it. It is hoped that some sort of experiment, such as is being tried in the Fraser Valley, B. C., may be begun.

The city of Saint John, New Brunswick, has had for years a well-managed public library, though it has been rather cramped for funds. Moncton and Woodstock have also public libraries, but in general the situation in New Brunswick cannot be called active. In 1929 the provincial legislature passed a Public Libraries Act under which a commission of three members, without salary, was to take charge of public libraries in the province. I am informed that the commission is no longer functioning. Unless such a library commission appoints a well qualified secretary-treasurer with adequate salary, it is unlikely to be able to fulfill its purpose. Moreover, the form of library apparently contemplated by this Act is not a free public library, but an association library of limited membership sustained wholly or in part by fees and dues.

III. QUEBEC

In Montreal, the metropolis of the province, there are several libraries available to the public. Westmount, an adjoining city, has a well-managed library; Montreal City Library has a fine building, but an inadequate supply of books; and the Mechanics' and Fraser Institutes have both served a large number of patrons for many years. Outside of these there is little to be said about public libraries in the province. There is no Public Libraries Act. In some towns and villages people who realize the advantages of reading have formed library associations, and in a few cases these have received small grants from the municipalities. In many parishes small libraries are maintained by the Roman Catholic Church.

The fact that the majority of the citizens of Quebec are French by race and Roman Catholic by religion has a bearing on the public library situation in the province. A number of books of varying degrees of merit are written every year by French Canadians, and published by

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firms in Montreal or in the city of Quebec. But the trade is necessarily small and none too well organized, and authors frequently have to publish their books at their own expense and attend personally to the sale and distribution of them.

In the larger cities the leading booksellers import with more or less regularity from Paris. It may be said, however, that in a general way the church views with suspicion the literary product of modern France. Perhaps these considerations account for the fact that there is no popular library movement in the province of Quebec.

A Quebec Library Association was formed in 1932, and has held its first meeting.

IV. ONTARIO

Ontario was the first province in Canada to establish a public library system and probably still leads. Sixty years ago Mechanics' Institutes—a form of association subscription library—flourished in many towns. Testimony from members (now aged or gone) who then used them bears witness to their value.

In 1882 the Ontario Legislature passed a Free Libraries Act, really an enabling act, permitting municipalities, after the electors had voted favourably on the question, to tax themselves for the support of a public library and laying down the lines of management. An Inspector of Public Libraries for the province was appointed, several municipalities took advantage of the Act, the provincial government lent support by liberal grants, and public libraries multiplied.

In 1900 the Ontario Library Association was organized, and for more than thirty years it has acted as a stimulus and guide, chiefly in Ontario but to some extent in all Canada.

In 1920, when Honorable R. H. Grant was Minister of Education and W. O. Carson was provincial inspector, a notable advance was made: the Act was amended to enable boards to demand from the municipality a rate equal to fifty cents per capita for support of the public library.

In November 1932 there were 222 public libraries and 300 public li-

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brary associations in the province. These report a total circulation of 12,325,908. There is a library school in connection with the University of Toronto. A quarterly, the *Ontario Library Review*, is published by the Education Department and distributed to all libraries in the province. The larger libraries in the cities compare favourably with foreign libraries in similar centres of population. A travelling library system by which boxes of books are sent to out-of-the-way places when the need of reading-material is felt and a request is made, is operated by the public library branch.

On the other hand, it must be admitted that many of the small libraries are neither properly supported nor efficiently managed. Their stocks of books are small, none too well selected, and insufficiently replenished. Probably the gravest defect in the Ontario library system at present is that there is little provision for library service to rural districts. There is no provision in the Libraries Act for the establishment of county libraries. An enabling act of the provincial legislature, whereby counties might vote on the question of establishing a county library system and in which would be laid down the general lines of organization, is the first desideratum in the improvement of the Ontario library system today.

Another thing that is needed is provision for further training of librarians in small libraries by means of short summer courses. This would be of great benefit to many librarians, and through them to the public they serve.

It would appear that the public library situation in Ontario today might be called by the familiar name of "depression." Some years ago Ontario was well abreast of the current library movement, but it has not kept pace with the times. There are serious obstacles to be overcome and much hard work ahead; but there are hopeful signs of unrest and aspiration among librarians and in the provincial department concerned.

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V. THE PRAIRIE PROVINCES

MANITOBA, SASKATCHEWAN, ALBERTA

Manitoba cannot be called a progressive province as far as public libraries are concerned. There is a Public Libraries Act but a poor one. There are a few public libraries, but none of them first-class. Nor does there appear to be any active public opinion about the question.

On the other hand, the Department of Education is making an effort to give library service to outlying districts by means of travelling libraries; for the year ending in July, 1931, it reported that 208 travelling libraries were sent out which returned a circulation of 132,942.

In the case of all these western provinces, it has to be remembered that in their northern parts is the frontier. Here men and women fight hard for existence. The difficulties of supplying books are great, but in no place are books more needed than in these lonely homes and settlements. Moreover, the settlements of "New Canadians" who read English with difficulty, or not at all, complicates the problem.

Saskatchewan appears to be a step ahead. The public library of Regina, the capital, has an honourable record for more than twenty years, and its latest report shows greater activity than ever. In Saskatoon, the seat of the provincial university, the public library has lately been somewhat reorganized, and a new and experienced librarian has been appointed.

The Department of Education for the province makes a grant to public libraries reaching a certain standard. According to the latest report available (1931) twenty-one qualified. During the past two years Saskatchewan has suffered greatly from the depression, from the failure of crops in 1931, and the low price of wheat. Like Manitoba, parts of Saskatchewan are frontier territory with all the difficulties attending library service in such places.

The province of Alberta has a good Public Libraries Act, and the government fosters public libraries by making liberal grants to them based on expenditure for books and periodicals. There is an active Library Association in the province. The public library at Calgary has been known for years as one of the most efficient for its size in Canada;

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Edmonton, Lethbridge, and Medicine Hat also have good libraries. As in Saskatchewan, some parts of the province, owing to low prices for agricultural produce, can hardly keep the elementary schools and public libraries open; and as in the other prairie provinces there is the problem of the new settler, often complicated by the foreign language question.

VI. BRITISH COLUMBIA

In some respects the library situation in British Columbia is the most interesting in Canada. In no other province has there been so thorough a library survey; and in no other is a library experiment being carried on as interesting as the one financed by the Carnegie Corporation and directed by Miss Helen G. Stewart in the lower Fraser River valley.

The topography of British Columbia presents difficulties in organisation, both for school and library purposes. Speaking roughly, the province consists of mountain ranges and valleys. Some of the valleys are large and open; others small and containing but few inhabitants.

But British Columbia has never been indifferent to public library service. For many years the City Library of Victoria has maintained a high standard, and for about a decade that of Vancouver has ranked with the best managed public libraries in the Dominion. Moreover, the Public Library Commission has been active for over thirty years in sending travelling libraries to sparsely populated districts.

Provincial library affairs are under the direction of a Public Library Commission, consisting of three members who serve without compensation. In 1928 the Commission, with the assistance of a Research Board, submitted a comprehensive report (Public Library Survey) containing recommendations of which the following are some of the most important.

(a) The creation of large self-supporting library districts in the more closely settled portions of the province.

(b) An effort to meet the library needs of less closely settled areas by an improved travelling-library service. This will involve the creation of distributing-points in the North and East.

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(c) Library-boats for isolated coast settlements that cannot be served by road or train.

(d) Demonstrations or public object-lessons in modern library service.

In 1929 the Carnegie Corporation gave \$100,000 to be used in carrying on a "library district demonstration" over a period of five years. The lower Fraser River valley was chosen as the district, and Miss Helen G. Stewart was appointed director-librarian in charge. The results of the first half of the five-year period have been very gratifying. When the Carnegie Corporation funds are no longer available, it is estimated that two-fifths of a mill added to the present taxes would meet the cost of carrying on the district library.

VII.

Having briefly surveyed the library situation in the different provinces, we still find it difficult to draw general conclusions. It may help to clear our ideas on the matter if we consider three stages in library development.

First: The pre-library stage where the reader buys the books he needs or wants, and perhaps extends his field by exchanging with a brother reader. This does not necessarily imply a low level of culture. Some provinces of Canada, and parts of all the provinces, are in this pre-library stage.

Second: The stage of the association library, when a number of readers get together, pool their resources, and buy books which each may read. These libraries differ according as they are supported: (1) wholly by the individuals subscribing, or (2) partly by municipal or provincial grants. In every province in Canada there are association libraries, and in most cases, but not all, they belong to the second type, that is, they receive outside assistance.

Third: The free public library for which a community taxes itself. As we have seen, this is the rule in the cities and larger towns of Canada. Some of these city libraries are in the first class—that is, they

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will compare favourably with public libraries in similar communities in any part of the world. Others, it must be confessed, fall considerably below the best standards.

The clamour about adult education has produced less of an echo in library circles in Canada than in some other countries. The reason for this is that adult education has been a leading and avowed aim of public libraries from the beginning. "Why pretend that there is anything new about it, unless you have been remiss in the past and have forgotten the main reason for the existence of the public library?" it is asked. Accordingly, the *Reading with a Purpose* series, so popular with our neighbors to the south, has not aroused any great enthusiasm in Canada. Some numbers, it is conceded, are as good as such short lists could be. Others have to be more or less altered to bring them into line with what Canadian librarians consider good bibliographies. Still others are on subjects that do not greatly interest us. But in all the live Canadian libraries the maxim that the public library is an integral part of a system of public education is accepted and acted on.

As a broad generalization we should probably be warranted in saying that Canada is interested and progressing in public library work, and that with the advent of prosperity a rapid advance on a broad front may be expected.

CHINA

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FORMERLY LIBRARIAN OF THE UNIVERSITY OF AMOY, CHINA

NOTE: The writer is much indebted to his friend and colleague, Mr. H. Y. Fen former librarian of the Hupeh Provincial Library at Wuchang, who is now working as an exchange librarian at Harvard, for suggestion and advice in preparing this article.

CHINA has always been noted for her great imperial family libraries. The imperial libraries of the early dynasties were for the use of the imperial family, high officials, and noted scholars, but during the Sung (960-1279), Yuan (1280-1368) and Ming (1368-1644) dynasties, the libraries at the Imperial Academy and the state colleges of the different provinces were open to all students. During the Ch'ing Dynasty (1644-1911) in 1783 Emperor Ch'ien-lung ordered six manuscript duplicates made by a host of scholars and scribes of the famous imperial library, *Ssu K'üan Shu*, of China's most important books at that time. Three of these were housed in specially built libraries in important educational and cultural centers, for the use of the public. Scholars and students had also free access to the libraries of the *Shu Yuan* or colleges in the different provinces.

Besides these state libraries there were numerous private family libraries and monastery libraries which were open to serious students under certain conditions. Even today the tradition of opening private family libraries to the public is kept up in China. Although libraries in the early days were not "public" or "free" in the sense that they were open to all people, yet they were public in the sense that they were open

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to the *educated* public, that is, to scholars and students. No restriction was placed on anybody (except certain classes under the Manchu Dynasty, such as barbers and actors and actresses) to become a member of the scholar class through the imperial competitive examinations. However, these libraries were depositories of valuable records of the past rather than centers from which to distribute useful books to all people. That is why in old days libraries were called *T'sang-shu-lou*, meaning "Book storing house" or "Store-houses for books." The term "T'u-shu-kuan" (Place for pictures and books) for new style libraries was introduced at the beginning of the present century when the movement for modern public libraries started.

After the disastrous results of the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-5 and the Boxer Rebellion of 1900-1, the statesmen of China began to feel the importance of popular education. The scholar, Lo Chên-yu, in 1902 advocated a system of public libraries and museums throughout the country.

In 1905 an imperial edict was issued, abolishing the classical examinations and establishing a modern school system. In 1905 Hunan Province established the first public library in China, and it was followed by Tientsin and Nanking. In 1909 a law was promulgated, establishing the National Library in Peking and a provincial public library in the capital of each province. It stipulated also the gradual establishment of public libraries in *fus* (prefectures) and *hsiens* (counties).

Then came the Revolution of 1911. In 1910 the Ministry of Education had promulgated a law on the promotion, organization and administration of popular libraries throughout the country. Another law, on the establishment of other kinds of libraries, was also promulgated. These two laws served as the basis for the founding of many popular libraries until the establishment of the National Government at Nanking, when new laws replaced the old ones.

In 1916 a law was passed requiring the deposit in the National Library of Peking of one copy of every book published and presented for registration in the Copyright Bureau of the Ministry of Interior. In the same year the Ministry of Education sent out a circular letter

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to every province and every *hsien* (county) in the country asking them to pay special attention to the collection and preservation of books, manuscripts and other materials relating to the history and culture of each respective locality, the materials to be deposited in the local libraries.

The public library movement received a great stimulus in three changes which have come over the nation. First, the Literary Revolution and Renaissance, which began in 1917, aims to make the *Pei Hua*, or colloquial language, the medium of literary expression. Secondly, the Student Movement of 1919 was begun with the object of arousing the common people to a new national consciousness. Thirdly, in 1920 the Mass Education Movement was begun, to teach illiterates to read and write in one thousand characters, and to acquire the fundamentals of citizenship. These three movements have been responsible for the sudden and large output of popular magazines and books in easy *Pei Hua* style. In 1914 there were only 367 magazines officially registered in the post office; in 1921, 921, and in 1925, 1,323—an increase of about 260 per cent in ten years.

During this period there emerged a great patron of the Chinese library movement in the person of the late Miss Mary Elizabeth Wood, the founder of the Boone Library and Library School in Wuchang. The new library was completed and formally opened to the public in 1910. Miss Wood tried her utmost to make the Boone Library of public service by public reading rooms, traveling libraries, and university extension lectures. She established in 1920 the first library school of China at Boone University (now Central-China University), Wuchang.

Dr. David Yui, one of Miss Wood's first students, suggested that if the remaining portion of the Boxer Indemnity was remitted by the United States a portion of it be used to introduce model modern public libraries in China. Miss Wood induced one hundred and fifty prominent Chinese to sign a petition, embodying this idea, which was unanimously endorsed by the Chinese National Association for the Advancement of Education at its annual meeting in August, 1923.

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This petition was sent to the President of the United States in September, together with a second petition drawn up and signed by sixty-five representative Americans in China. Miss Wood went to Washington to give information and to help forward the passage of the bill and remained there for six months, during which time she interviewed, personally, 82 Senators and 400 Representatives. As a result, a bill was passed authorizing the President to remit to China the balance (\$6,137,552.90) of the Boxer Indemnity fund.

After the passage of the bill, a Board (since known as the China Foundation for the Promotion of Education and Culture), consisting of ten Chinese and five Americans, was formed in 1924 to administer this returned indemnity fund.

To bring before the China Foundation the best uses of the money for libraries, a delegate from the American Library Association was invited by the Chinese National Association for the Advancement of Education to make a survey of libraries throughout China. Dr. Arthur E. Bostwick, editor of this volume, was chosen by the American Library Association as the delegate. He went to China in 1925, and was there from April 26 to June 16, visiting about fifty libraries and delivering an equal number of public addresses at fourteen principal cities in ten provinces. He was welcomed with enthusiasm by librarians, educators and publicists.

The China Foundation for Education and Culture made a grant of \$500,000 gold for a national library in Peiping upon the petition of the Library Association of China and the weight of Dr. Bostwick's recommendations. The new National Library of Peiping was built on the Winter Palace grounds granted by the Government, and was completed and formally opened to the public on June 25, 1931. The new library is the first one of several large public libraries which will be established by the China Foundation as "demonstration libraries" in five or six chief centers of the country.

The last few years have witnessed the gradual carrying out of the ideas and plans described above, including the recommendations of Dr. Bostwick. There has been a general awakening of laborers and

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peasants during the last few years and, since 1927, an enormous increase in the publication of popular newspapers, magazines and books.

After the establishment in 1927 of the Nationalist Government at Nanking, a novel experiment in educational organization, that of university districts, was tried. The *Ta Hsueh Yuan*, or University Council, was made the highest educational administrative organ in place of the former Ministry of Education. It consisted of five departments, one of which, the Department of Cultural Enterprises, has control over libraries throughout the country. This was the first time in the history of China that affairs relating to libraries were put under the administration of a separate department with a trained librarian at its head. Although after a year's existence the *Ta Hsueh Yuan* was changed back into the Ministry of Education in 1928, and library matters were placed under the Department of Social Education, yet the emphasis put upon libraries had its effect upon later library legislation. The law regulating libraries promulgated by the *Ta Hsueh Yuan* in December, 1927, is still in force.

To supplement this, the Ministry of Education promulgated in 1929 another law relating especially to county public libraries.

An event of great importance to the Chinese popular library movement during this period was the beginning of the publication in 1929 of a Universal Library by the Commercial Press. This library, following the old model of Chinese *ts'ung-shu*, is a collection of the great books of the world, Chinese originals or translations, in popular editions.

The library is being published in instalments. The first consists of 1010 works in 2000 volumes. The titles are selected by a board of experts and many fundamental western works are represented.

The whole library is completely classified by a modified Dewey system and the call number has been printed on the back of each volume. A set of about 3000 catalog cards with printed call numbers and filing numbers is sent with the library. The Ministry of Education and the Ministry of the Interior sent in October, 1932, a joint order to each province asking them to buy a set of the Universal Library for the local county and local city library.

China

There are at present seven different types of libraries in China. They are as follows:

1. *National Libraries*

The first is the National Library of Peiping, an amalgamation of the old National Library, founded in 1909, and the Peking Metropolitan Library established in 1926 by the China Foundation for the Promotion of Education and Culture. It has established a branch in Peiteiho, the summer resort of North China and is preparing to establish a model children's library and other branches in the city of Peiping. The circulation department is a popular library for all people.

The other national library is that of the Palace Museum, thrown open in 1925. It was formed by bringing together all the books and manuscripts from the numerous palaces, pavilions, and halls of the Forbidden City and is still being organized for effective use. It is primarily a reference library and contains many ancient Chinese books and manuscripts, some of which bear holograph notes of past emperors.

The Sinological Library of Nanking was made a National Library during the short existence of the *Ta Hsueh Yuan*, but it has since been changed back to be the Provincial Sinological Library of Kiangsu. At present the Government is preparing to establish a National Central Library in Nanking.

2. *Provincial Libraries*

China has at present 28 provinces, each of which has at least one provincial library, while several have two or more. They are somewhat similar to the state libraries of the United States, being supported by the provinces under the direct jurisdiction of the provincial departments of education.

A provincial library is usually located in the capital of the province, although when a province has more than one, the second is often situated in another large city. Sometimes there is more than one provincial library in the same place, when one is usually chiefly for reference use and the others are designated as "popular libraries" with new and more popular books.

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The collections in most provincial libraries were formed out of the libraries of the old *Shu Yuan*, or provincial colleges, in the days of the classical competitive examination. Many provincial libraries have also been enriched by bequest or purchase of private family libraries.

As a whole the provincial libraries possess the more fundamental and standard books for Chinese studies. Within the last ten years or so most of them have begun to collect books on science and the western cultures. Most have circulating departments, possessing substantial collections of standard and popular books for home use. A few have also opened branch libraries and popular reading rooms. In many cases a whole provincial library is a circulating library.

3. *County and City Public Libraries*

Practically every city and many county-seats now have libraries. They are of two kinds: (1) public, supported by taxes, and (2) private, endowed by private citizens. These libraries contain more popular books than the provincial libraries and are more for the use of the common people. The total number in China was 921, according to statistics compiled by the Library Association of China in the fall of 1931. This number is far from adequate, and the county libraries are usually inadequately staffed with insufficiently trained personnel.

4. *Popular Libraries, Reading Rooms and People's Educational Centers*

These institutions are the products of the popular or mass education movement of 1920. They are housed in any available structures, such as temples, private residences, abandoned schools, ancestral halls, and public buildings. They are usually small, containing a few thousand books each, while the reading rooms have only current magazines and newspapers with perhaps a few reference books such as dictionaries, etc.

The People's Educational Centers are an innovation in the educational system of China. According to law such a Center comprises nine departments, including a Library Department. By law each county is to establish one such Center at the county-seat, to be operated

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as a demonstration center for people from the surrounding villages and towns.

According to the statistics for 1928, there were in that year 185 such institutions, 321 popular libraries, and 1,402 reading rooms.

5. *Children's and Primary School Libraries*

Libraries for children are still in their infancy in China. According to the surveys of the Library Association, there were only 54 such libraries in 1931. These, however, do not include the children's departments established by many provincial and city public libraries.

6. *School and College Libraries*

The libraries in high schools, colleges and universities are on the whole the best managed ones in China. It is in the college libraries that one finds really strong staffs of thoroughly trained men.

Several are doing extension work, the earliest and most notable example being the Boone Library at Wuchang, as previously related.

7. *Society and Governmental Bureau Libraries*

These are special libraries, each being devoted to one or a group of related subjects. According to the latest statistics there were 45 society libraries and 43 governmental bureau libraries in 1931.

8. *Statistics of the Growth of Various Types of Libraries in China, 1925-1931*

Types of Libraries	Oct., 1925	Oct., 1928	Dec., 1929	Dec., 1931
1. National Libraries			2	2
2. Provincial Libraries			47	49
3. County and City Libraries			878	921
4. Popular Libraries		(321)*		
5. Reading Rooms		(1,402)*		
6. Library Departments of Popular Educational Institutes		(185)*		
7. Special Libraries (mostly for children)			41	54
8. School and College Libraries			387	413
9. Society Libraries			38	45
10. Governmental Bureau Libraries			35	43
Total	502	642	1,428	1,527

*Source of data: From Ministry of Education: *Statistics of social education*. The other figures are from the "Surveys of Libraries" published in the *Bulletin* of the Library Association of China on those dates.

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The oldest library association in China is the Peiping Library Association, organized in 1918. The first national library organization was the Library Section, formed in 1921 in the National Association for the Advancement of Education. Under its stimulus and guidance, many local library associations have been formed in various cities and provinces. The crowning result was the formation of the Library Association of China in Peking, June 2, 1925. At the initial meeting of the Library Association of China the editor of this volume was present as an official delegate from the American Library Association.

The membership up to the end of June, 1932, is as follows:

Honorary members	32
Institutional members	233
Individual members	402
Total	<hr/> 667

The Association has since 1925 been publishing a *Library Science Quarterly*, which has now reached its sixth volume, and a bi-monthly *Bulletin*, which is at present in its eighth year. It has also published works on Chinese bibliography and several indices to current sinological and literary periodicals.

The Association has a paid secretary, and maintains headquarters in the National Library of Peiping.

The National Association has made four surveys of libraries in China and has sent many circular letters to all the local libraries, urging them to form local library associations. There are at present about fifty, although only half of them are institutional members of the National Association.

The two most active are those at Peiping and Shanghai. The Peiping Library Association began to publish a bulletin in 1924 and has since published several useful union catalogs and guides.

The Shanghai Library Association has published a series of texts on library science, and also issues a regular bulletin. Some of its members are now conducting a correspondence course on library work.

In ancient China librarians were mostly scholars for whom biblio-

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graphical training was a regular course and part of their equipment. Librarians were also required to have a sound and broad knowledge of many subjects, including especially Confucian classics and Chinese history. Knowledge of the proper care of books was not neglected. Sun Chung-t'ien (18th century A.D.) in his *Essentials of book-collecting* (*T'sang shu chi yao*), first published about 1810, treated of library methods in careful and minute detail.

Knowledge of modern Western library methods was introduced into our country through the Japanese. In 1915 a manual on library economy prepared by the Japanese Library Association was translated into Chinese. Meanwhile American missionary librarians were teaching Chinese students how to manage a modern library. Several of these men later went to the United States to study library work, and when they returned they began to teach their fellow countrymen. The first formal school for library training was opened in February, 1920, at Boone University (now Central-China University), Wuchang, under the initiative of the late Miss M. E. Wood, with two of her students, trained in America, as instructors. Up to the end of 1931 the school has graduated seventy students, six of whom are girls.

A library department has also been established at the University of Nanking, and brief library courses are offered in many normal schools and colleges. Summer library training institutes have been held in many places since the first one in Peking in 1920. The enrolment has ranged from 50 to 300 persons.

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COSTA RICA

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IN COSTA RICA the libraries have not been created by any public movement. Little by little the government of the republic has been organizing them in the principal cities of the country. Here and there a social club, a municipality, a school or college has done something towards the creation of a public library. Some of these attempts have been made with the approval of the government. The public libraries of Costa Rica have thus been growing by the efforts of the government; gifts from private citizens have been extremely rare. On the other hand, the owners of valuable private libraries have done and are doing all they can to sell their collections to the government.

Costa Rica possesses libraries in the following cities:

San José. Capital of the republic, "Biblioteca Nacional."

Cartago. Provincial capital.

Heredia. Provincial capital.

Alajuela. Provincial capital.

Limón. Provincial capital.

Puntarenas. Provincial capital.

Liberia. Capital of the province of Guanacaste.

San Ramón. Capital of the district of the same name.

The library at Limón is partly municipal.

In the School of Law, in the Court of Justice, in the Faculty of

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Medicine and in certain secondary schools of the capital and of the provinces, there are libraries worthy of consideration.

The libraries of Cartago and Alajuela serve both the elementary and the high schools of those cities.

The National Library was created in 1888. It is based upon the library of the former University of St. Thomas. In 1890 there was incorporated with the National Library, the Office of Deposits and International Exchange of Publications. The library is governed by an excellent code and is organized and administered in a suitable manner. Only one department of the National Library is catalogued and classified according to the Dewey Decimal system. It has not been possible to make a reference catalog. Formerly the National Library loaned books for home use, but this service has been greatly curtailed. It is now forbidden to take out books for use in private homes.

The libraries in this country are static rather than dynamic, meant more for the student than for the people at large. The number of readers is still small. The National Library seems to be several years in advance of the intellectual needs of the city. It is rich in classical works. Some departments are behind the times because funds are lacking to bring them up to date. As a general rule very little is spent upon library service.

I have mentioned the National Library because it is the best known and the most advanced. What it has not been possible to do there naturally has not been done in the other libraries. In the National Library there is a room reserved for children, and it is well patronized. From time to time lectures and readings are held in this room. But the library as it is now organized does not aid adult education, hospitals or prisons. As I said before the cultural effect of the library is limited to the service, by day and evening, which it gives in its own building to readers who wish to and are able to visit it. At the present time nothing is being done to attract readers.

There are not, besides, any book dealers' associations or official or private societies which are working for the diffusion of books. There are no periodicals concerned with library work. At one time the

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National Library had a modest Bulletin but it was discontinued for the sake of economy.

There is no bibliography concerned with libraries except a catalog of the National Library, the printing of which is not yet finished, and a few announcements and regulations concerning the same Library.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

BY ANTONÍN MATULA,

HEAD OF THE DEPARTMENT FOR ADULT EDUCATION

IN THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

AND NATIONAL CULTURE AT PRAGUE

THE Czech nation, which in 1918 was united with the kindred Slovak branch into one state, is democratic and progressive. Care for the education of the masses in and out of school was the starting point of Czech cultural policy during the whole of the nineteenth century. Practically from the beginning of that century, the Czechs considered the popular library as an educational institution, a "school for adults." The first public libraries which aimed at popular education were founded in 1817 at Zlonice, Bohemia, and in 1818 at Radnice, Bohemia. With the development of culture, a library movement started in the Bohemian lands after the revolutionary year 1848, and was strengthened by the passage of the Social Law of 1867 and the School Law of 1869, which established compulsory education up to the age of fourteen years.

In the lands represented in the Austrian Imperial Parliament there was neither a legal constitution nor a sanction for promoting the establishment of popular libraries. The Czech educational societies, therefore, founded popular libraries not only for their own members but for the general public as well. Bohemia was in the front rank of the public library movement, as in 1897 there were 267 public libraries, 239 Czech and 28 German, with 193,380 volumes, directed and maintained or supported by districts or communities. According to statistical information there were in Bohemia, in 1905, 3,213 public popular libra-

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ries, in 1910, 4,451. The Czech libraries in Bohemia had 1,279,433 books, making an average of 329 books for each. For each 100 inhabitants of Czech nationality there were on an average 30.2 volumes. The librarians received little or no remuneration. Among them were 1808 teachers, 652 peasants, 314 artisans, and 216 labourers. An average of fourteen volumes was issued to one borrower, in all, 2,677,903 volumes being issued to 189,883 borrowers.

In Moravia and Silesia, a statistical inquiry was first carried out in 1919, when it was ascertained that in Moravia there were 1954 popular libraries accessible to all, of which 1719 were Czech and 235, German. In Moravia, 76 per cent of the Czech school communities had a library, and 65 per cent of the German. In the Czech libraries there were 527,513 volumes, in the German, 167,343. In 1919, in Silesia, there were all together 145 Czech libraries, accessible to all, with 36,301 volumes as well as 56 German libraries. Before the publication of the Library Law there functioned in Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia about 6279 libraries accessible to all, with 2,008,069 volumes, and 2911 club libraries, with 1,061,353 volumes, making in all approximately 9190 libraries with 3,069,422 volumes. In Slovakia and Sub-Carpathian Russia conditions were far more unfavorable. The statistics of the public library system had not been worked out here; they might have revealed very unsatisfactory conditions.

In 1903, the review *Máj* printed Stech's proposal for a regional law for Bohemia, directing the compulsory establishment of public libraries in all political communities, and regulating their finances, contents, management and supervision. The Association for Adult Education issued in 1906 an open letter to the deputies of the Bohemian Diet "On the legalization of public libraries." In the journal for adult education *Česká Osvěta* (Czech Culture) L. J. Živný published in 1906 "A Scheme for regulating the establishment and maintenance of public libraries in the communities of the Bohemian kingdom."

In the years 1901 and 1908, was presented in the Bohemian Diet a bill to establish a local library law, and in 1907 in the Moravian Diet a project for the legalization of communal public libraries. A common

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feature of the proposals is the demand that communities should be compelled by law to found public libraries or at least to contribute towards them. A meeting of Czech librarians in 1910 demanded by resolution the passage into law of the library project of the Bohemian deputy, Dr. Körner. But it was not until the establishment of the Czechoslovak Republic on October 28, 1918, that the Czechoslovak nation took into its own hands the decision of its cultural future, and energetic work was started not only in the school field but also in adult education. The Association for Adult Education, on November 5, 1918, authorized experts to work out the material already prepared and draft a bill for a library law. On February 7, 1919, the civic instruction of adults was taken over by the State, and on July 22, 1919, a special law was passed for public communal libraries, supplemented by the regulations of November 5, 1919. The project of the Association for Adult Education was revised by the advisory body for public libraries which was organized by the Department of Adult Education in the Ministry of Education and National Culture. The library law was approved by the National Assembly as a government proposal. The kernel of the law, and of the government regulations supplementing it, is this: Every political community shall found a public library containing educational, scientific, and entertaining works of intrinsic value. Communities with a qualified national minority are compelled to provide for this minority a special library or a special department of the general library. The expense shall be met by the community like any other communal charge. The community shall contribute to the library from 30 hellers to one crown [one to three cents] annually for each inhabitant besides the remuneration of the librarian, shall appoint half of the members of the library board, provide suitable quarters, and, where conditions are favorable, maintain a reading room and a reference library. The annual contribution in communities of mixed nationality is regulated according to the number of members of the minority.

The library board, which is independent of the communal administration, consists of from four to eight elected members, of the national-

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ity to which the library belongs. Half of the members, appointed by the community, together with the secretary of the local commission for adult education, elect the remainder of the members from regular borrowers during the previous period. The board serves for two years. It appoints the librarian and his assistants, conducts the business of the library, decides upon the librarian's suggestions for the purchase of new books and the removal of unsuitable ones, adopts rules for the borrowing of books and the use of the reading room, and presents annually a written report of its activities to the representatives of the community. The librarian has an advisory vote in the board. In communities of more than 10,000 inhabitants, the librarian's salary enables him to devote himself entirely to his duties. He is a communal official. In smaller communities the librarian is remunerated according to arrangement. Librarians by profession must have a secondary school education and must have studied one year at the State Library School; librarians in communities of from 2,000 to 10,000 inhabitants must have higher elementary education and a special course. The technical education of professional librarians is provided for at the one-year State Library School at Prague, which has a Czech and a German course; for librarians in communities of from 2,000 to 10,000 inhabitants, the Ministry of Education offers yearly a three weeks' library course; for librarians in smaller communities, a short library course.

The Ministry of Education controls the libraries on the technical and administrative side with the help of library instructors in communities of over 2,000 inhabitants, and with the help of district library inspectors in smaller communities. The library instructors confirm the appointment of librarians in communities of over 2,000 inhabitants, the library inspectors in smaller communities. The Ministry acts as the highest tribunal in all disputed questions in communal libraries. It has authority to dissolve the library board and to appoint a temporary directing body; it can for sufficient reason discharge members of a library board and appoint new ones, and can remove a librarian for cause. The management and settlement of affairs which do not appertain to the Ministry of Education belong to the respective political

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authorities. Such, for instance, are the provision of quarters for a communal library, the payment of communal contributions to a library, etc.

Supervision of communal libraries in Slovakia is carried on by the state library instructor attached to the branch of the Ministry of Education at Bratislava; supervision of the libraries of Sub-Carpathian Russia is effected by a special official of the branch of the Ministry of Education at Užhorod. The Ministry of Education offers to communities which are financially weak grants of books which the library boards select from a catalogue approved by the Ministry of Education. From 1919 to 1932 it granted—apart from contributions for the personnel—about eighteen million Czechoslovak crowns to the library schools and courses and for the support of communal libraries. This Ministry always takes the initiative in the development and management of the public libraries, especially through the technical training of librarians and the publication of administrative handbooks and lists of books suitable for communal libraries.

The library law gave a great impetus to the public library system in Czechoslovakia, first of all in Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia, and from 1925 also in Slovakia and Sub-Carpathian Russia, where the execution of the law was connected with the development of the school system.

PUBLIC COMMUNAL LIBRARIES IN THE CZECHOSLOVAK REPUBLIC

Year	Libraries	Volumes	Readers	Loans	Income in Cz. crowns
1926	14,755	5,079,907	866,725	13,476,148	16,062,697
1927	15,355	5,444,884	880,326	14,440,593	16,275,308
1928	15,896	5,768,887	892,087	14,383,625	16,958,762
1929	16,168	6,334,319	961,769	14,899,798	19,036,524
1930	16,461	6,635,844	953,775	16,226,805	20,885,886

The statistical investigation for the year 1930 concerns 17,430 library centers, since a community of mixed nationality is counted as a library center as many times as there are nationalities having claims to a library in their own language, or to an independent minority section in a general library. On an average, each Czechoslovak reader was loaned 18 books, each German, 15 books.

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Since one-third of the communities in Czechoslovakia have less than 300 inhabitants, their compulsory communal contribution to the public library does not suffice for the purchase of books for a normal number of readers. For this reason, in districts with a considerable number of small communities there are organized, with state support, regional or district libraries. This is the final achievement of the Czechoslovak public library system. The regional and district libraries supplement the local libraries with selections of books that are periodically changed. In 1931 there were 61 Czechoslovak regional and district libraries, having at their disposal a total of 69,213 volumes. The small German libraries are supplemented by the *Zentralwanderbücherei* (Central Traveling Library) at Prague with its 3028 volumes.

The district committees on adult education, organized throughout the state in accordance with the law of February 7, 1919, are an important factor in carrying out the library law. They are advisory bodies for libraries, voting library rules, settling library fees, confirming the appointments of librarians, organizing the supervision of libraries in communities of less than 2,000 inhabitants, and arranging, with the support of the State, training courses for librarians in small communities and for state contributions to communal libraries, etc. Publicity work for the libraries is carried out effectively by the following societies—the Masaryk Institute for Adult Education, the Association of Czechoslovak Librarians, in Prague, and the Association of Public Librarians of the communal libraries at Brno; also by the technical review *Česká Osvěta* (Czech Culture), published since 1904, *Časopis Československých Knihovníků* (Journal of Czechoslovak Librarians), since 1921, and the German *Volksbildungsarbeit* (since 1928), formerly *Buch und Volk*. The Masaryk Institute for Adult Education, the Slovak *Matice*, the Association for Adult Education for Sub-Carpathian Russia, at Užhorod, and the German *Zentralwanderbücherei*, at Prague, have established book departments which store and dispatch the books purchased by the Ministry of Education for the public libraries. Chiefly it is elementary school-teachers who are trained for librarianship. Teachers perform the functions of librarians in small communities

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gratis: they are members of library boards, they carry on without charge the duties of district library inspectors, advertise the public library through the press, arrange book exhibitions, etc.

The administration of communal libraries is in accordance with a decree of the Ministry of Education in 1920, by which directors of these libraries were charged to keep an inventory, a catalogue indicating the location of books, a card index catalogue, an alphabetical catalogue of authors, a hand catalogue for the use of readers, a cash book and a list of loan-regulations prepared in such a manner that statistics of readers and loans might be compiled.

The ideal of a Czech public library is achieved at Prague, where the town has erected for this purpose, with the support of the Prague Municipal Savings Bank, a splendid building in the center of the town, in a quiet spot, with a circulating department and storage for a million volumes, a reading and study-room, a room for periodicals, dailies and provincial newspapers, a reading room for young people, another for the blind, with a lecture-theatre and an exhibition hall, a marionette theatre and cloakrooms; in short, equipped with everything which a modern library requires.

Public communal libraries in Czechoslovakia are not the only libraries used by the public. Besides these there are 20,061 scientific and technical libraries with 15,443,320 volumes. Most of these libraries are for teachers in the elementary, higher elementary, agricultural and lower technical schools. These number 17,928, with 3,596,194 volumes.

The Czechoslovak public libraries attempt to arouse and strengthen the spiritual life of man, and it may be hoped that the present economic crisis, which weighs heavily upon the communal and state budget, will not stop their development. The conviction that man does not live by bread alone is confirmed by the history of the Czechoslovak nation. Public libraries can furnish most of the spiritual bread, and for that reason we shall endeavor to enhance their quality and power of achievement, when we have attained quantitative success.

DANZIG

BY DR. F. SCHWARZ, DIRECTOR, STADTBIBLIOTHEK

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THE general public library of the Free State of Danzig is the *Stadtbibliothek* (City Library) which was founded in 1596. Its origin coincided with the time when the culture of Danzig was at its height, and is closely connected with the rise of the Danzig school system, especially of the *Akademische Gymnasium*, and of the arts and sciences in general. The direct cause of it was the donation of the large book collection of an Italian humanist who had drifted there, Giovanni Bernardino Bonifazio, Marchese d'Oria. Then there were the manuscripts and the stock of incunabula of the Franciscan monastery to which were later added the stocks of books of other Danzig churches and monasteries. The Library was increased until about the middle of the nineteenth century by donations of money and books, made by Danzig citizens. The Library, which up to the end of the eighteenth century had been called *Bibliotheca Senatus Gedanensis*, or *Ratsbibliothek* (Library of the City Council), has been since the middle of the nineteenth century a city library in the present-day sense, supported by the community. At present the costs of administration are 100,000 gulden annually.

Since the separation of Danzig from Germany, the *Stadtbibliothek* has been also a State library, and therefore forms an important link for the spiritual relations between the old fatherland and the eastern territories separated from it.

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The *Stadtbibliothek* serves research work, but also, to a considerable extent, general education. In the first place, it serves the mental sciences, like history, geography and languages, law, political science, philosophy, and pedagogics, while the natural sciences are served by special libraries: The Library of the *Technische Hochschule* (Technical University), and the Library of the *Naturforschende Gesellschaft* (Association of Scientists). Of course, the *Stadtbibliothek* attaches special value to the collection of the entire literature of the home state, and, besides the *Staatsarchiv* and the *Museum für Heimatgeschichte*, preserves the rich historical tradition of Danzig and West Prussia. At present the *Stadtbibliothek* contains about 250,000 separate volumes (230,000 bound volumes). Among them are 4000 manuscripts and 800 incunabula. Especially worth mentioning is the large collection of old music, which has been increased by the stock of local churches and which enjoys a world reputation. The collection of the graphic arts contains about 15,000 sheets (maps, portraits, historical sheets). The City Library, with an annual circulation of 45,000 books, has a use of 35,000 in the reading room and is in constant communication with the German and numerous foreign libraries and scientific institutions.

The Library of the *Technische Hochschule* is in the first place destined for the instructional purposes of the *Hochschule*, but is also open for non-members of the *Hochschule*. The Library was founded at the same time as the *Technische Hochschule* in 1904 with considerable means and large private donations. Today it numbers 110,000 volumes, including the 30,000 volumes of the *Naturforschende Gesellschaft*. Primarily it provides books for the several scientific and technical societies. Of course, there is also given a certain space for the acquisition of books in other fields, especially a department for the mental sciences.

In the Library of the *Technische Hochschule* is also housed the Library of the *Naturforschende Gesellschaft* which was founded in 1742. Its chief scientific value is less in the older stock than in the long series of periodicals and publications of academies and associations which for many decades have been continued carefully up to date.

Danzig

Besides its two large public libraries, Danzig has a number of smaller research libraries, namely those of the scientific institutes: The *Stadtmuseum*, The *Staatsarchiv*, and the *Museum für Heimatgeschichte*, and, furthermore, the partly public libraries of institutions, like the Department of Justice of the *Volkstag* (Diet), and the Chamber of Commerce, which possess valuable literature in their own fields, and which are accessible to outsiders through the *Stadtbibliothek* and the *Hochschulbücherei* (Library of the Technical University). Besides the scientific libraries, there are the so-called *Volksbüchereien* (public libraries) which serve general education and provide good literature for instruction and entertainment for the general public. These are divided into two groups, one formed by three *Städtische Volksbüchereien* which were founded by the city administration in the years 1905 to 1912. They are provided with reading rooms, are open daily and are taken care of by a staff of twelve full-time officers and a number of assistants. The second group is formed by the so-called *Kleinere Volksbüchereien* which have been founded since the nineties of the nineteenth century by private donations and by societies. They are generally taken care of by teachers. They have no reading rooms and are open only on certain days in the week. They too are subsidized by the city and the plan is eventually to change them into full libraries. The first group has a stock of 40,000 volumes and a circulation of 210,000 volumes annually. In the second, with a stock of about 11,000 volumes, about 80,000 volumes circulate annually. The public funds used for the three *Volksbüchereien* amount to about 60,000 guilder.

DENMARK

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THE real development of Danish public libraries did not begin until 1920, when the Danish library law was passed, but their history dates back more than one hundred years. At the end of the 18th century the first collections of books for the general public were often installed in schools and kept up by voluntary gifts and loaning fees, only rarely by public allowances. These libraries have lost their original character and have become merely libraries of entertainment for the people, while the educated classes make use of the club or circulating libraries. About the end of the 19th century there were approximately 1,100 libraries in the 1,697 communities of the country. Among about 75 provincial towns of the country only twenty-six had public libraries of their own. In the 80's six public libraries had been established in the capital, Copenhagen; they served the reading needs of the public with a budget of 16,000 Kroner.¹

At this time, a professor in a Gymnasium in Jutland, Andreas Schack Steenberg, who, as librarian of his school, and without the slightest knowledge of library work in other countries, had conceived the idea of granting general public access to the school library, succeeded in having other State schools follow his example. By 1892 he had conceived the idea of a system of public libraries to serve the whole country,

¹ A Krone (crown) is about 26 cents.

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and with this in view he procured information on conditions in other countries. Dr. Edvard Reyer in Vienna, who had just published his book, *Volksbibliotheken*, introduced Steenberg into the library system as it had developed in the Anglo-Saxon countries. Steenberg was enthusiastic for this work as it was carried on in England and above all in the United States, and from then on he became an ardent pioneer for the adoption of Anglo-Saxon ideas on Danish soil.

As a pioneer in this field in 1899 he was asked by the State to join a committee which had been formed in the 80's for the distribution of small allowances among existing libraries. In 1900 he was able on the basis of his experiences and studies in other countries—he did not visit the United States before the publication of his book—to publish a small work on the history and institution of public libraries. The work shows clearly Steenberg's careful and prudent character. He is enthusiastic about American libraries, and urges that the methods of the large countries might be imitated with small means. Although this work marks the beginning of modern library work in Denmark, it must now be doubted whether Steenberg would ever have been the man to lead the development into the right directions alone.

His principal idea was put into definite shape by other people, but he had the pleasure of taking part in its development. In 1909 Steenberg was nominated by the Ministry as Counsellor in library matters and as President of the State Library Commission, which then became an independent institution. In the following years he established a number of new libraries and introduced improved methods of administration.

The foundation of future progress was laid by the chief librarian of the Royal Library, H. O. Lange, who in 1909, in a lecture, stated in a nutshell the idea of our whole future library development. He said:

“The library system in a country like Denmark should form an organically connected whole, which begins with the school libraries and comprises local reading rooms with reference libraries, travelling libraries, as well as larger libraries centrally located for the larger districts, but also in a close connection with these libraries for research work.”

Starting with this fundamental idea, Lange proposed that a series of

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active centers be established—at least one in each county, in well-organized cooperation with the local public libraries on one hand, and the research libraries on the other. “These libraries,” he said, “should extensively take care of the library needs of the district and deal with elementary, as well as higher, reading materials, but the use of books from research libraries which generally are not sent out should be allowed in the reading rooms provided safety is sufficiently assured. Besides this, they should form a link between students and large libraries and at the same time a local bureau of information for all people craving knowledge within their district.” Lange intended these provincial libraries to have collections up to 50,000 volumes. Furthermore, he planned to have each one located in the capital of the county, where it should serve at the same time as a library for the city.

Lange’s plans were somewhat opposed by the representatives of the community libraries, because they were afraid of centralization and suppression of the small independent community libraries. Steenberg and his collaborators, however, accepted this plan enthusiastically. Five years afterward they succeeded in obtaining an annual State allowance of 5000 Kroner for two central libraries.

Lange’s plan was the subject of vehement discussions within the Library Union, which had existed since 1905. As this union—probably the only one among all library associations of the world—is a union of libraries and not of librarians, and as the small country libraries formed an overwhelming majority, one can easily understand the resistance against the new type of library and the fear of the influence of the professional librarian. Lange’s and Steenberg’s propaganda, however, during the years of the war, resulted in the establishment of new libraries in the cities, and in larger and larger allowances by the State, as well as by the city; also in an ever-growing number of central libraries. The local allowances rose in the years 1910 to 1918 from 35,000 to 200,000 Kroner and the State subsidy from 12,000 to 100,000 Kroner. After the war, interest in the new libraries resulted in the passage of the Danish Library Law of March 5, 1920, amended in 1923 and 1931. It is a so-called subsidy law, but, at the same time, by the

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conditions for receiving an allowance, it sets forth what the Danish State demands of a public library.

Libraries are subsidized by the State according to the following provisions:

A municipal, independent, or association-owned library shall grant books for home reading free of charge or for a small annual payment to the inhabitants within its area. Within such library the governing body appoints and dismisses the librarian and other assistants, and fixes salaries. But in the Central libraries the Minister of Education must approve choice of the librarian and fix his salary.

One library in each town or parish may receive a state grant providing it receives a regular local grant of not less than 75 Kroner, though children's libraries in national schools may receive grants irrespective of the presence in the area of other state-subsidized libraries. State grants are, as a rule, annual, but in special cases a grant may be made upon the re-organization or establishment of a library.

Grants are computed thus: 80 per cent of up to 15,000 Kroner, of the regular local grant of the last year; 40 per cent of the next 10,000 Kroner; and 20 per cent of the regular local grants exceeding 25,000 Kroner. Local grants may include the lettable value of library premises put at public disposal without charge, as well as the value of lighting and heating supplied gratis.

Central libraries, which assist in the work of local libraries by the loan of educational literature to individuals, by traveling libraries, in guidance in matters of a technical kind, and in other ways, may receive a further Central library grant, constituting one-half of the principal grant but not exceeding 6,400 Kroner. The annual grant to the Faroe Islands is provided for in the state budget, irrespective of other provisions.

The Library Director, who is at the head of the State Inspection of Libraries, computes and distributes state grants and, in cooperation with the Library Council composed of twelve additional members, organizes the training of librarians.

The proposal for the annual grant to be provided for in the state

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budget is submitted to the Council by the Library Director before it is sent to the ministry. The Council shall be consulted by the Minister on matters of vital importance to the libraries dealt with in this act, just as the Council may of its own accord submit proposals to the Minister on such questions.

The law of 1920 contained special provisions for the municipal libraries in Copenhagen and for some large municipal libraries in the provinces, which annually were given a special grant. The present law subjects them to the general rules for grants. For the municipal libraries in Copenhagen the total grant of the State in 1930-31 was 132,436 Kroner.

In general it may be said of the law that it is not objectionably compulsory. The individual communities are not forced to establish libraries, nor must the libraries necessarily be municipal. Neither free lending of books nor the existence of reading rooms is obligatory. The most important object of the law has been to urge strongly the institution of new libraries or the reorganization of old ones. Under the direction of the State Inspection of Libraries, the law has brought about a complete reorganization of the library system, especially in the cities. Although a number of central libraries had already been established, the founding of such libraries according to special concessions authorized by the law to institutions of this kind was now really set in motion. In 1919 there were seven; today there are 27. In the following decade general progress was enormous. In 1919 there were 67 city libraries; in 1929, 80. These had 294,000 volumes; in 1927, 703,000. They circulated 1,113,000 volumes; in 1929, 3,142,000 volumes. The local subsidies amounted to 123,700 Kroner; in 1929, to 667,200 Kroner. In the country the number of libraries was increased from 602 to 766 and the stock of books from 383,000 to 929,000. The circulation rose from 735,000 to 2,916,700 volumes and the local subsidies from 75,200 to 486,000 Kroner. The resulting increase of the State subsidy was ninefold, namely, from 105,000 to 920,250 Kroner.

To the above-mentioned statistical information must be added the fact that the number of books circulated in the rural districts was

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increased by approximately 475,000 volumes lent by the central libraries to 20,000 individual borrowers in the country; also by about 100,000 volumes in book-boxes sent out by the central libraries.

Some other city libraries have also been active in the rural districts.

The number of adult borrowers in 1919 to 1920 was about 1/19 of the population; today it is about 1/6. The circulation has increased from approximately 1½ volumes to about 5 volumes per inhabitant without regard to what has been borrowed from other libraries. Circulation of special literature in the city is between 40 and 20 per cent and in the rural districts 15 and below, the average being about 12 per cent.

The expenses resulting from this progress were distributed for 1930-31 in the following way:

	Copenhagen & surroundings	Provincial cities	Other libraries
State grant	127,750 Kr.	602,555 Kr.	214,938 Kr.
Municipal grant .	925,287 "	531,541 "	192,981 "
Other local grants .	6,198 "	160,182 "	141,249 "

This makes a total of 945,243 Kroner from the State, 1,649,809 from the communities, and 307,629 from other local sources. Thus the total cost of maintenance of the Danish public libraries in that year was 2,902,681 Kroner.

The above-mentioned figures prove that the economic foundation of the library has completely changed, and therefore also all the activities of libraries. Old worn-out libraries have been replaced by well bound and well ordered collections which comprise all non-scientific special literature. The larger libraries have a trained staff. Most of the central libraries, as well as many ordinary city libraries and some in the rural districts, have buildings of their own, and the central libraries very often are noteworthy, containing valuable artistic decorations provided for by the wealthy Ny Carlsberg Foundation.

While the rural and the city libraries have to provide for themselves exclusively, it is, as has been said before, the duty of the central libraries to provide for the whole district, without cost, the type of special literature which smaller libraries are not supposed to have. Moreover,

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they provide these libraries with fiction that is specially valuable or rarely read, and they lend at a small extra cost current fiction, if so desired.

The methods of circulation outside the city limits is different in different libraries. Some of them lend from their stock directly to individual borrowers who call at the library personally; some of them send the books to individuals in the rural district. Furthermore, some have installed traveling libraries in rural communities, or they give to librarians from these places when they call at the central library a collection of books of their own choice. Finally some of them have begun to make use of their own, or of borrowed, library vans, which either provide the traveling libraries with new material, or distribute, at special points in the rural communities, directly to individuals. At the same time they give on these tours technical instruction to those rural librarians (almost always teachers) who desire it.

Furthermore, the central libraries have gradually begun to act as mediators between all sorts of public libraries or users of libraries on the one hand, and the large State or special libraries on the other.

Every interested reader, no matter where he lives, can get every work which his central library does not possess, if this work is in any of the State or special libraries. In a Bureau of Information in the offices of the State Inspection of Libraries, Copenhagen, one can at once find out where the work is to be found, and it can then be sent directly to the rural library. The Bureau of Information, furthermore, borrows foreign books from abroad if they are not to be found in Denmark. The number of requisitions in the year 1931 was more than 3,000, 80 per cent of which could be handled with the cooperation of Danish or foreign libraries. The State Library in Aarhus functions as a kind of leading center for the central libraries and, like the Royal Library, it receives current Danish books as deposit copies.

With regard to rural libraries it must be admitted that organization and money are properly used only in a very small number of places. Of approximately 750 smaller libraries, no more than 150 may be called modern in the sense that they could take care of the whole

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population of the community. This does not exclude the possibility that it may be taken care of, only it is done in such a way that the individual borrower applies to the central libraries. The others are still existing in the same way as before the law, practically as reading circles which furnish desired fiction to a certain group in the community. It must, however, also be added, that in recent years great progress has taken place in this territory, due possibly to the fact that the central libraries now have become firmly established and are in a position to take up the work in their rural districts. Instruction in elementary library science is given in some places at the normal schools. As soon as the entire younger class of teachers, from which almost all librarians in the rural districts are recruited, shall have received such instruction, the rural libraries will also devote themselves to modern library work.

Before the Library Law was put into force, the Royal Library and the University Library in Copenhagen, as well as the newly founded State Library in Aarhus, had to function in a wide measure as ordinary public libraries with reference to Danish literature, also in great part for popular foreign literature, which had to be bought to satisfy popular demand to a certain extent. After the stock of the city libraries has been put in order these libraries can devote their entire strength to the purchase of foreign special literature and at the same time protect the Danish books acquired by obligatory contribution.

In 1924 the Great Library Commission was established, whose task it was to organize scientific libraries. This commission worked out a plan by which all libraries of the country were united for cooperation in the field of book purchase. This is gradually being put into operation by cooperation of the different scientific libraries among themselves on the one hand, and with these and the State Inspection of Public Libraries on the other.

As can be imagined, the technique of the Danish public libraries was bound to develop according to the Anglo-Saxon, and especially the American, models with which the pioneer of library affairs, A. S. Steenberg, had made himself familiar. There was at that time no other

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proved method and therefore Steenberg recommended to the Danish libraries Dewey's decimal classification, the Cutter numbers, and the American methods of cataloging, although all this had gradually to be adapted to Danish conditions. Thus, for example, the decimal classification was partly simplified so that it could be used without difficulty by our comparatively small libraries because these ordinarily have no use for detailed subdivisions; furthermore, it was changed in such a way that group 40 was reserved for geography and travel, while linguistics was inserted under group 80; in this way more space was gained for the geographical and national topographical literature which in the public libraries is emphasized, while linguistics is not.

Moreover, they followed America in installing open shelves, the Browne charging system, and later the Newark system. An attempt was made recently to replace the latter by the Detroit system, mainly in order to relieve the personnel for more intensive service to the public. For this purpose our libraries have even abolished the large charging desk which is often an impediment to closer communication between librarian and borrowers. The librarian moves freely in the circulation room in front of his open book shelves, always present with advice if desired. The stamping is done in a special delivery room or at a small desk near the exit.

From the Anglo-Saxon libraries was also adopted reference work, although none of the Danish public libraries has as yet been able to furnish a special room for this kind of work. It is therefore done in the reading rooms, which perhaps give the impression of reference departments. It might be mentioned that the Scandinavian and more especially the Danish library system is often, especially by the Germans, reproached with its American character. That is to say, it is supposed to be especially materialistic and pays less attention to the humanistic education of the people. With regard to this, however, we must remark that the danger of such negligence is apparently not very great, because the libraries use at least half of their budget for the purchase of fiction and the circulation of the same is far more than half of the entire circulation.

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Danish library-extension work comprises especially cooperation with schools—above all in the form of advice to children on how to use books and libraries. To this is added a close cooperation with special school library associations in public purchase and distribution, which is administered by class collections of books. Within the adult education service the libraries are now in close connection with study sections, and also with the continuation schools and with the folk high schools.

Moreover, they try to make connection with all kinds of educational associations and institutions, and they make book lists for lectures, educational movies and exhibitions. At every opportunity exhibitions are arranged for animal shows, special courses, jubilees, etc. Finally, it must be mentioned that several city libraries have begun an already highly-valued work in hospitals.

The Library Law ordered that the State Inspector of Libraries should supervise the special training of librarians. Such training had already begun at the time of the old State Library Commission under Steenberg. It had, however, been amplified after the passage of the law and been made a fixed institution. It now takes place every year, in the winter semester, and so far about 250 librarians have been trained. The prerequisite for entrance into the school is generally a Bachelor of Arts degree and two years of practice at a larger library. Shorter summer courses are held for rural libraries (mostly for teachers) every year by the State Inspection.

As early as 1905 Denmark's Library Association was founded; but as at that time there were no real librarians at the public libraries, this association assumed the exceptional character of an association not of librarians, but of libraries (especially rural libraries, since there were only a few city libraries), which were represented by their boards of directors. An association of librarians existed under the name of the Danish Librarian Association from 1908 to 1916. It was continued as the Danish Library Association from 1916 to 1919, and contributed essentially to the passage of the library law in 1919, whereupon the association dissolved. The purpose of the present union was agitation for establishing libraries, for editing a periodical, *Bogsamlingsbladet*,

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and for facilitating the purchase of books. Twenty-five per cent discount was asked for and granted by the publishers; the discount is now 15 per cent.

As the libraries after the passage of the law were growing and getting expert librarians, the latter joined the Association as personal members, and, to the disappointment of the original members, they gradually obtained a majority of votes. Through the establishment of municipal libraries in the larger cities, the representation of these increased, and their interests were not the same as those of the rural districts. Therefore, it was resolved to divide the Association into three groups: 1. An association of the larger libraries. 2. An association of the smaller libraries. 3. An association of administrators. Each of these may meet separately when circumstances demand it, and all meet only at the plenary session of the annual Grand Assembly. All groups, however, are represented in the Chief Administration, and all three groups pay their share of dues into a common fund. The common task of the Association is to publish a library paper, *Bogens Verden*, founded in 1918, and to labor for the improvement of the libraries, for example, by publication of book lists for all types of libraries, by financial assistance, by radio lectures, etc. The entire number of members is about 1,800. Besides the main Association there is, in most of the country districts, also a local library association affiliated with the national association, to promote libraries locally. These library associations must not be confused with the "library unions" in some cities and rural districts, whose only purpose is to manage and to assist the libraries of the town or of the district.

In the national association are found several librarians of scientific libraries as personal members; a service organization for the personnel of the scientific libraries, however, does not exist.

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ESTONIA

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THE foundation of the Estonian public libraries is of comparatively recent date, as in Russia, to which Estonia formerly belonged administratively. Without mentioning here the libraries of the former ruling class, we give a survey of the libraries whose beginning dates back to the seventies of the past century, and which owe their origin to private initiative.

Under the pressure of circumstances with outside subsidies, libraries in towns, as well as in the country, developed but slowly. Only in the beginning of our century when the self-consciousness of the nation, together with its self-activity and the cooperative system, were growing, were libraries and reading circles founded. Some were connected with educational, temperance and other unions, but others began as independent library clubs. Also private persons founded circulating libraries. A successful development at first was not assured because central control, as well as leaders and professional librarians, were lacking. Another difficulty was to obtain the official permission of the state administration to found libraries.

Since 1910 the library system has taken a great step forward. In 1912 the statutes of the Union of Estonian Authors, *Noor-Eesti*, (Young Estonia) were sanctioned, and in connection with it a department for the institution of libraries was founded. The duty of this department was to encourage the foundation of libraries, to secure assistance for

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obtaining the permission of the state, to obtain advice, and so forth. Among other things, pamphlets were published which dealt with the foundation and arrangement, etc., of libraries. The World War and the following Estonian War of Independence (1918-1920) put a sudden end to this rise of the Estonian Library System. Many libraries were even compelled to stop their activities entirely.

Only after the State had obtained its independence could the educational system of the nation be freely developed. Not all the difficulties, which during the Russian régime prevented the foundation of educational institutions, were removed. But it became highly desirable to establish them, and they were now aided by the corresponding institutions. Thus, since 1918 it has been the duty of the School Administrations to guide and to organize educational work among the people, also outside the schools. Since 1921, according to ministerial decree, it has become the task of the School Office to establish libraries and reading rooms. Sixty-five per cent of the present libraries have been founded during the period of independence.

In 1924 the Estonian Parliament passed a law for the Library System, which was put in operation on the first of January, 1925. According to this law all administrations in cities, townships, and communities are obliged to found within the territory an adequate number of public libraries, or to make contracts with existing private libraries. Under this law the administrations have to bear the cost and have to include in the budget 2 cents per inhabitant annually for the acquisition of new books. The State subsidizes these libraries to the amount of the budget of the preceding year, but not over 200 Kronen. The budget of the All Estonian Central Library at Tallinn is 3 cents per inhabitant. Thus the state subsidy is 4000 Kronen annually.

If a private library fulfills the task of a public library it is subsidized in the same measure by the administrations and the state. If the private library no longer fulfills the duties of a public library, the administrations take over the stock of books, which have been bought at the expense of the State or of the administrations, for the foundation of new libraries, or for handing them over to others.

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There are no statistical data available about the number of public libraries at the time of the passing of the Library Law in 1924. At the beginning of 1922, however, there were in Estonia 559 libraries, and of these two were supported by the state, 12 by the administrations, 121 by library societies, 189 by educational unions, 45 by societies of literature and art, 21 by temperance societies, 15 by private persons, 143 by various other societies, and 11 in miscellaneous ways. In 1925, 66 new libraries were founded, and in 1926, 49, so that the total number of libraries at the beginning of 1927 was 674. Of these 69 per cent were founded by unions and societies, 20 per cent by administrations, 10 per cent by private persons, while for 1 per cent no information is available. At present the total number of libraries exceeds 700.

By a decree of the Ministry of Education, the books in the public libraries have been arranged in ten sections, according to the decimal classification. The catalog corresponds to this classification.

Other larger libraries in Estonia are as follows: the University Library at Tartu with 500,000 volumes, the National Library (the so-called Archive Library) with 100,000 volumes, the State Library (for Parliament and Government institutions) with 50,000 volumes, the Library of the Estonian Literary Society with 75,000 volumes, and the Library of the Estonian Learned Society with 16,000 volumes.

There has been in existence since 1923 the Association of Estonian Librarians whose task it is to further the Library System, to raise the professional standard of librarians and to protect their professional interests. Since there is no state center for directing the Library System, the above-mentioned society takes care of most of these tasks. Due to its initiative, many continuation courses for librarians have been established. Another organization which deals with the Library System is *Eesti Haridus-liit* (the Estonian Educational Association).

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FINLAND

BY M^{LLE}. HELLE CANNELIN,

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OF FINNISH STATE

THE oldest libraries in Finland, as in most other countries, have been scholarly book collections. There have been libraries of this kind in connection with churches, schools and universities from the fourteenth century. Such libraries, on the other hand, as could have been used by wider circles of society, naturally were not thought of before literacy had grown common, and suitable popular literature was available. The Lutheran Church had been teaching people to read since the Reformation in the middle of the sixteenth century, but a couple of centuries passed before any other literature besides the Bible and the Prayer Book and a few devotional books could be given into the hands of the Finnish-speaking population. The language of education was, as elsewhere, Latin, and afterwards Swedish, Finland being under the rule of Sweden until the year 1809. In the nineteenth century begins the movement for elevating the standard of education, and the newly-awakened national spirit expresses itself in an endeavour to create a literature in the Finnish language and to distribute popular books as widely as possible among the people. The question of libraries also naturally attracts attention. Detached attempts to establish libraries for the unlettered population had been made from the year 1803, but not until about 40 years later can we speak of a "library movement." So begins a new phase—a kind of charity movement for the education of the people.

Finland

In the nineteenth century libraries were founded and funds collected for them chiefly by the clergy and also by other persons of social standing, and by university students. The reading public, on the other hand, consisted mainly of peasantry and working-people. Quite early, however, members of those classes of people, for whom the libraries were intended, were to be seen among the founders. Among the pioneers of the movement may be mentioned a certain young man who himself had no school education whatever, and who published in 1845 in a provincial newspaper moving appeals in behalf of libraries.

These libraries contained mostly religious and other didactic literature, but not even fiction and poetry were excluded. Funds were raised by public collection, lotteries, bazaars, etc., and also by different modes of taxation, e.g. from couples that were to be married and young people about to be confirmed. The ownership of these libraries was often rather indefinite and their lifetime wholly dependent on the efforts of a few interested persons. These "old-fashioned" libraries have, nevertheless, unpretentious as they were, in many localities fulfilled a remarkable cultural function, especially as teachers of those men of the people who never had the advantage of school education (the system of elementary schools was not actually developed before the end of the nineteenth century), but who in many ways, even as representatives of the peasantry in the Diet, became influential in the social life of their time.

At the close of the century the library movement in Finland entered a new phase. This was partly due to political circumstances. Russia was strengthening her oppressive measures to put down the independent cultural life of Finland, and in counter-movement people set about to elevate the culture and to enhance the national feeling of the Finnish people in all possible ways. Cultural organizations displayed new vigour, which expressed itself also in establishing new libraries in many parts of the country. In its aims and forms, on the other hand, the library movement of Finland was influenced to a considerable degree by impressions from America. Libraries were

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from now on planned for all citizens on the model of American public libraries, and there was a gradual abandonment of the charity idea, which had only provided for the needs of the uneducated part of the population. The interior organization of libraries gradually began to claim notice, and many systems, which had their origin in the United States, such as Open Access, Dewey's decimal classification, the Newark and Browne charging systems, and the dictionary catalogue on cards, began to spread.

During the entire time when Finland was under the rule of Russia, or until the year 1917, the library movement had hardly any financial support from the State, so that it had to depend on the support of popular education organizations. It was only when the country had gained independence that the State began both to support effectively and to direct and organize the library movement. From 1921 there was a provisional state library commission and state subsidies were given. In 1928 a Library Law was passed by the Diet, and it came into force in the beginning of 1929. In this law the library movement is organized on a permanent basis. The library work of the State is under the administration of the State Library Commission, which is a kind of board, meeting when necessary. The chairman of the Commission is a representative of the State Board of Schools and the members represent some of the leading organizations for adult education. The executive office is the State Library Bureau, the staff of which includes seven library inspectors. The country has been divided into districts under these inspectors, who live in their respective territories, do propaganda work for libraries, direct the organization of libraries, inspect libraries receiving state aid, etc. In a country with a wide area a system of this kind has proved appropriate; it establishes a close contact with the local staffs of the libraries, and the libraries themselves can be visited frequently. The State Library Bureau publishes annotated lists of Finnish and Swedish books printed in the country. An adaptation of Dewey's decimal classification, with explanations and an index, was published some time ago; catalogue rules are being prepared, also a list of subject headings and a general

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catalogue of older literature recommended to libraries. Library courses are also organized and directed by the Library Bureau.

The state aid to libraries is paid—as provided in the Library Law—on the basis of the sum used by the libraries themselves for certain purposes, of which the purchase of literature, the salaries of the staff, library equipment and housing rents are among the most important items. From 1929 to 1932 this subsidy has been about 50 per cent of the total expenses; in other words, the State has allowed about the same sum as has been granted from local funds. This percentage, however, has held good only for the smaller libraries. The law includes a stipulation that not more than 30,000 marks shall be paid to any one municipality, and consequently state aid has not been of equal importance to large libraries. As this is being written a bill has been offered in the Diet, providing that, owing to the present financial depression, the percentage of contribution may be cut down. The provincial municipal libraries are certainly in the best position as regards state aid, and popular library work in Finland is gradually becoming more and more municipalized. Some associations and societies have, it is true, their own libraries, but they are small and in most cases specialized for the use of the members. On the basis of the expenses in 1930, state aid has been granted to 1033 libraries in all—to libraries owned by 392 provincial municipalities, 36 city municipalities, and 9 associations, up to the total of 3 millions. Helsinki [Helsingfors], the capital, which alone expends for library purposes about 3 millions, has not applied for state aid.

Finland is a country with an extensive area—about twice as great as that of the British Isles, but she has a comparatively small population, only about three and one-half millions. There are no very large cities, Helsinki, the capital, having about 250,000 inhabitants. The principal seat of the library movement is therefore in the provinces, and quite naturally there are only very few large libraries. The municipal library of Helsinki includes, in addition to the central library, five branches. The number of volumes was in 1931 about 200,000, the circulation for home use, about 800,000.

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All towns support municipal libraries, most of which have been established in the sixties and seventies of the nineteenth century. Their size and use vary considerably. The number of volumes is between 2000 and 40,000, and the home use, between 2000 and 200,000. Most provincial municipalities, of which there are about 500 in Finland, are owners of at least one library each. But one library to a provincial municipality is seldom enough; in many cases it may be necessary to have as many as ten libraries in different districts of the municipality, unless the distance to the library is to surpass 3.5 kilometers [2.3 miles]. The central libraries in country places usually contain from 1000 to 2000 volumes; the number of home loans varies from 1000 to 5000 yearly. The branches contain about 200-500 volumes, and the average of home loans is from 200 to 1000. In addition to stationary branches with fixed book collections, there are a few book-wagons, but the former type is generally preferred. The total number of libraries may be estimated at about 2000, school libraries excepted, of which, as stated above, only about 1000 have of late been receiving state aid. As the majority of the population, about 90 per cent, are Finnish-speaking, the majority of the books are in the Finnish language. The Swedish-speaking minority, living in the coast regions of the country, has its own libraries, with literature in the Swedish language, and these receive state aid on the same basis as other libraries. The largest city libraries are bilingual and also contain literature in foreign languages.

Only in the largest and some of the smaller cities and in a few provincial localities do the libraries have buildings of their own. Among these the central library building of Helsinki may be mentioned, as it is the first building in the Scandinavian countries erected (in 1880) purposely for a library. In some towns the library building has been put up either entirely or partly with private gifts, as for instance in Tampere, which has the most modern library building in Finland, designed after American models and erected in 1929. Generally the libraries are housed in rented rooms or in rooms in buildings that are owned by the municipality. In the provinces the central libraries of the communities are situated in the municipal buildings, small

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libraries generally in the elementary public schools. Since the time when state aid has been paid on the basis of apartment rent, more and more libraries in the provinces are acquiring rooms for their own exclusive use, only smaller libraries being housed in cupboards in assembly and school rooms. The open access system is in use where accommodation makes it possible. Alphabetic or systematic card-registers of the books are at the disposal of the public; more seldom, complete dictionary catalogues. In classification, Dewey's decimal system, adapted to conditions in Finland, has become common. In lending, the Newark charging system is used, also a one-card simplification of it. There are reading rooms with reference libraries in most towns, but in the country these are comparatively rare. Special children's departments with reading rooms are so far found only in larger places.

The occupation of a librarian can be a full-time occupation only in the larger towns. In the country and in smaller towns libraries are in charge of people to whom this work is only a side line. The library workers are in such cases often teachers, but quite commonly also persons of some other class, such as clerks, farmers, and their sons and daughters. In early times provincial libraries were generally managed by persons without salary, but since state aid has been paid on the basis of salaries, the library staff has generally received remuneration, although in most instances it has been quite small. For the professional training of library workers courses of three or four months were arranged in Helsinki in the years 1920, 1924, and 1930. In different parts of the country numerous short courses of about one to three weeks' duration have been held, chiefly for persons who do work in libraries as a side line. The small number of full occupations in the library career explains why a permanent library school has so far not been found possible. Outside the courses mentioned above, preparation for a library career is obtained only by practice and experience in the work itself. The requirements for getting state aid include a stipulation that the library employees shall possess certain qualifications, which have been established at a comparatively moderate level. In order to advance the professional competence and to raise the grade of those

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managers of provincial libraries whose library work is only a secondary occupation, certain professional requirements have been fixed for them also. In their cases the requirements are particularly easy—only a brief examination, no compulsory courses and specified school education.

A general central library or libraries for specified districts have so far not been achieved. The libraries are working as comparatively detached institutions; actual cooperation exists only between different libraries in the same community. The Library Law contains a clause regarding county libraries, to the effect that large city libraries may receive a special state contribution on condition that they shall act as library centres for more extensive areas. For the present the state has not seen its way to grant the support necessary for the realization of this plan.

There has so far been no cooperation worth mentioning between schools and libraries. Both secondary and elementary schools have libraries, but they are seldom organically connected with the curriculum. There are very few pupils' reference libraries. In training schools for teachers, regular instruction in library work has been given since the year 1911 to future elementary school teachers, and in the model schools working in connection with the training schools the importance of the use of libraries as an aid to instruction is emphasized. The State Board for Schools has arranged courses and conferences for the librarians of training schools. Generally speaking, the interest in library work in schools seems to be on the increase. The adult education movement in Finland is comparatively strong and proceeds on friendly terms with the popular library movement, though there is not much actual cooperation.

After some popular education organizations had been giving their support to the library movement, the Finnish Library Association was founded in 1911 to take up this work. This association includes library workers and also other persons who wish to promote the interests of libraries. The planning of general library meetings in different parts of the country has been one of its most important functions. The Association publishes a library journal, which from 1908

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to 1920 appeared under the name of *Kirjastolehti* (*Library Journal*), being entirely devoted to this cause, but in 1921 it was incorporated with the organ of one of the popular educational organizations under the name of *Kansanvalistus- ja Kirjastolehti* (*Popular Education and Library Journal*). Among the Swedish-speaking population the library movement is promoted by an association called Svenska Folskolans Vänner (Friends of the Swedish Elementary School), which publishes frequently in its organ *Svenskbygden* (*The Swedish Finland*) articles dealing with library work.

The Finns are a nation interested in reading and books. There are bookshops even in outlying provincial places, and valuable books are not rare in the homes of the agricultural classes and working-people. The development of the library movement has been somewhat retarded by political circumstances and by the lack of funds, but it seems to have good chances of prospering.

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FRANCE

BY GABRIEL HENRIOT, LIBRARIAN,

BIBLIOTHÈQUE MUNICIPALE D'ART ET D'INDUSTRIE,

SOCIÉTÉ DES AMIS DE FORNEY, PARIS

TRANSLATED BY MARY P. PARSONS,

MCGILL UNIVERSITY LIBRARY SCHOOL, MONTREAL

IN FRANCE, special attention to the development of public libraries was first given by the National Convention during the Revolution.

Public libraries here are ordinarily general libraries open to all classes of people. In each city the municipal library serves also as a popular library, except in some large centers like Paris, which has a special administration for popular libraries, and Lyons, Algiers, Lille, and a few other cities which have their municipal libraries and have opened popular ones as well.

The municipal libraries had their origin in a decree of the National Convention entrusting to the schools the numerous large libraries which had formerly belonged to religious congregations and to the *émigrés*. Soon the control of these libraries passed from the schools to the communes. Some had very rich collections of books, but they were more interesting to scholars than to the general public.

Unfortunately the administrations which succeeded the National Convention did nothing to keep these libraries up to date.

As early as 1833 Guizot called attention to the lack of organization and method in these libraries and to the consequent impossibility of using their rich collections. "They are very often storehouses of books rather than libraries."¹ he said.

¹ "Ce sont bien souvent des dépôts de livres plutôt que des bibliothèques."

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The first really popular libraries were those created by private initiative. In 1836 Benjamin Delessert conceived the idea of founding a popular library in each *arrondissement* of Paris. In 1837 Perdonnet, President of the *Association Polytechnique*, opened a library for workmen who were following his courses at the *Halle Aux Draps*. In 1848 the Second Republic planned to establish popular libraries in all parts of France but did not have time to carry out the project.

Under the Second Empire there were isolated and sometimes interesting attempts to establish popular libraries. In 1861 the *Société des Amis de l'Instruction* opened its first library. The public shared in the administration and paid monthly dues. The *Société Franklin*, founded in 1862 and recognized by the government in 1879,² was established for the purpose of furnishing books free of charge or at reduced prices to libraries of all types and of furthering the development of popular and army libraries.

When, in 1862, the interest of the Imperial government was aroused, a decree was passed, establishing libraries in all public schools. In addition to textbooks, it was ordered that there should be instructive and attractive books to be lent to adults and their families. This was the very best way of giving a taste for reading to the general public. French people are very independent, very individualistic, devoted to family life and interested in the smallest detail that concerns their children. Books which children bring from school are noticed by everyone, and in many cases family libraries are made up entirely of books that have been given to children as school prizes.

After the school libraries had been founded, the municipal popular libraries came next. On the first day of November, 1865, the first municipal library of Paris was opened in the *mairie* of the 11th *arrondissement*. Some other *arrondissements* followed the example, rather timidly, until in 1878 there were eight libraries. But the public showed little interest. Nevertheless the Préfet Hérold made a great advance by opening libraries in the various *mairies* and in public schools in Paris until there was one in each quarter. The first of these was opened

² Reconnue d'utilité publique.

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on April 30, 1882. At present there are eighty-five municipal libraries in Paris.

In 1881 the Ministry of Public Instruction published a catalog of the popular school libraries.³ It began with this declaration of principle: "They are free libraries belonging to pupils and to the adult public. They send into the country books which workmen and farmers cannot afford to buy. Every village can have its collection of books, which travel and go into every house, to find readers, without charge and without difficulty. Reading begins with the children and ends with the parents."⁴

Today the school libraries are administered in accordance with an order of December 15, 1915, and a circular of July 20, 1922. Every elementary school must have a library installed in a special room whenever this is possible. These libraries are particularly useful in the small communities, so numerous in France, which cannot afford municipal libraries. Of these communes, 22,151 have fewer than 500 inhabitants; 13,151 have between 500 and 2,000 inhabitants, and the rural population is constantly decreasing.

In these little school libraries the teacher is librarian. Books are lent for use at home and there are regular hours when the reading room is open. Several schools may be authorized to join in maintaining a library. These school libraries are administered by local committees and the Council of the Department votes money for their maintenance.

All this is satisfactory in principle. But in most cases there is no local committee and the subventions are ridiculously low. For 73,149 elementary public schools there are only 47,629 libraries (1929). A very careful investigation, made in 1930 by the administration of elementary schools,⁵ shows that even in the cantons where conditions are best several communes are without books. The collections are unequally

³ Bibliothèques populaires des écoles publiques (anciennes bibliothèques scolaires).

⁴ "Elles sont la librairie gratuite de l'écolier et de l'adulte; elles font pénétrer dans les campagnes des livres, dont l'ouvrier et le cultivateur ne peuvent faire la dépense. *Chaque village* peut avoir ainsi son cabinet de lecture qui se déplace et va, dans chaque maison, trouver le lecteur, sans frais et sans peine: l'enfant commence, les parents achèvent."

⁵ Direction de l'Enseignement primaire.

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distributed, and the best libraries appear poor when they are considered in relation to the number of inhabitants. Out of 40 cantons investigated, only one, the town of Pons with 4,427 inhabitants, was found to have a special room for a library. When there is neither popular nor communal library some adult readers come, but very few.

Generally, the books are not only very few but are also valueless or worn out. The French public does not like books that are out of date or dirty. In one commune where the boys' library had 162 volumes in bad condition not one of them circulated. The girls' school had only 30 volumes but they were in fairly good condition and there was a circulation of 48. In another commune a little, new library owning 80 fresh volumes showed a circulation of 1800.

In 1930 the *Commission de la lecture publique* adopted a project for the organization of rural reading. According to this plan, a central library would be established in each commune and the capital of the department would have a departmental library which would lend books to the communal libraries.

The present financial crisis makes it extremely improbable that this plan will be carried out very soon. Meanwhile we may cite certain private undertakings for providing reading in rural districts. The *Ligue de l'enseignement* sends boxes of books free of charge all over France and the *Comité national des loisirs*⁶ has about 60 local committees organized to found reading rooms and circulating libraries. The *Musée pédagogique* in Paris⁷ has a circulating library which should be further developed.

The criticisms which Guizot made of the municipal libraries are still true, only too often. In most cases there is no regularity about the appointment and salaries of librarians, nor about funds for bookbuying and maintenance. The budgets are ridiculously small—sometimes even non-existent. The national government is content to send a few books every three or four years. As to the committees of inspection, they are useless or tyrannical. In 1930, M. Charles Schmidt, Inspector-general of

⁶ 5 avenue de la République, Paris.

⁷ 47 rue Gay-Lussac.

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Libraries, expressed himself as follows: Some municipal libraries are admirably organized and directed by librarians of great ability. On the other hand there are only too many other libraries which are merely cemeteries of books.

In 1930 the *Commission de la lecture publique* proposed the following measures for city libraries: 1. A complete reorganization of the municipal libraries; 2. The establishment of a central fund called *Caisse des bibliothèques*; 3. The creation of a central service of libraries and public reading.⁸

A bill covering these different points has been introduced into Parliament, but it is necessary to reckon with the present crisis. Meanwhile only a few cities, Grenoble, Versailles, Rennes, etc., seem to be interested in the problem. In most cases they have active and competent librarians.

At the International Congress on Public Reading held in Algiers in April 1931,⁹ I had the honor of presenting a report about the city of Paris and public reading.¹⁰ "Since the month of October, 1931, when the Library administration¹¹ was reorganized, the city of Paris has been making a serious effort to establish, improve or transform municipal libraries. At present the situation is as follows: 26 libraries in which there was not very much to be done have been renovated; 59 remain to be renovated."

Since the presentation of this report, seven of this last group have been renovated, the modern library in the rue Fessart among others. Twelve have been transformed and made more modern, including the *Bibliothèque d'art et d'industrie Forney*, which in a few years will be moved into a historic building and will become the *Institut des métiers de Paris*. Eight other municipal libraries are now being worked

⁸ "1. Une réorganisation complète des bibliothèques municipales, 2. la création d'une caisse autonome, dite *Caisse des bibliothèques*; 3. la création d'un *Service central des bibliothèques et de la lecture publique*, rattaché à la Direction de l'Enseignement supérieur, au Ministère de l'Instruction publique."

⁹ Congrès international de la lecture publique.

¹⁰ *La Lecture publique*. Paris, Droz, 1931, p. III et seq.

¹¹ Service des bibliothèques (Préfecture de la Seine, Direction des Beaux-arts, Service des bibliothèques).

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upon and a plan has been made for the transformation of six more.

Two new libraries have been opened to the public, one of them a special library on feminism.¹²

The present distribution of municipal libraries might be criticized. Certain *arrondissements* with small populations have too many libraries, while on the other hand some large ones are not well served. At present the question of the creation of a central library is being studied.

In the case of army libraries, a distinction must be made between libraries which belong to the different army corps and those which are organized in garrison cities.

Regimental libraries have existed in France from the time of Louis XIV (1688), but from the Second Empire they began to be much more numerous. There are three kinds: 1. Those which the officers have founded with their own resources and which tend to be replaced by better garrison libraries; 2. Those of the non-commissioned officers; 3. Those of the soldiers. The last two classes are primarily recreative libraries. They are under the direct supervision of the Minister of War, and they need careful reorganization. They include libraries in armories, hospitals, and military posts.

As early as 1822 there were some garrison libraries with a chaplain as librarian. The conquest of Algeria led to the establishment of libraries among the principal military posts (1842). Since that time the garrison libraries have made progress but a great deal still remains to be done. In 1872 General de Cissey, Minister of War, proposed to make them centers of social life and study for the officers.

These libraries lend books for use at home. A commission of five members, two of whom may be reserve officers, directs them. Their resources come from membership dues, and books are sent by the *Service historique de l'armée*. These libraries are sometimes large and very active, especially those in North Africa.¹³ At present, attention is being given to their reorganization.

¹² La Bibliothèque féministe, Mairie du V^e arrondissement.

¹³ See Lt. Colonel Boudot, *Les Bibliothèques de garnison de l'Afrique française du nord* in *La Lecture publique*, p. 193 et seq.

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For the navy there is an interesting organization called *Le Livre du Marin*, which has opened libraries in the ports and furnishes reading to the sailors on shipboard for a membership fee of one franc a year. In 1930 there were 50,000 members. There are also some official libraries, such as the *Bibliothèques des équipages de la flotte*, for the officers and sailors, which correspond to the garrison libraries of the army.

Special libraries for the working classes have been established by private initiative. Some large manufacturing firms have libraries in their factories. The *Union des industries métallurgiques*, with 30 establishments, has 40 libraries serving a total of 65,000 workmen. Some of the libraries have sections for foreigners. In general the owners of the industries direct the libraries, but sometimes there are also committees of owners and workmen and even committees of workmen alone, with the choice of books, however, submitted to the owners for approval.

These libraries are primarily recreative and include few technical books except in the sections for apprentices. Many of these libraries have small sections of periodicals and books for children. Many of them have reading rooms that are used a good deal. In general the workmen read little, but those who do come to the library use it assiduously. Some of these libraries have more than 1,500 volumes, some have more than 2,000 and one has more than 10,000.

In some factories books are not lent but are sold at a price much lower than the current booksellers' price. In the libraries which lend books, there is generally a small membership fee entitling a person to one book a week.¹⁴

Like the school libraries, Catholic libraries are very numerous. There are more than 15,000 of them for 31,000 parishes, and besides there are 15,000 social centers for workmen and apprentices, in nearly all of which there are libraries which lend books. In some of them there are reading rooms. In reality these libraries suffer from lack of direction and at present (1932) a serious effort is being made to establish a

¹⁴ See: H. Lemaître, *Les Bibliothèques et les loisirs ouvriers en France, Enquête de la Société des nations. Rapport provisoire*, 1932.

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central administration with an ecclesiastical director and a lay secretary. Central libraries already exist in some departments.

The *Société de bibliographie*, with its *Bibliothèque centrale d'études*¹⁵ plans to maintain permanently a central library where all modern works can be consulted.

Various other organizations should also be mentioned. The *Ligue patriotique de Françaises* puts series of books into circulation; the *Oeuvre des campagnes*¹⁶ has circulated more than 500,000 volumes since its organization in 1880; the *Union des associations ouvrières catholiques*, with its *Office général des oeuvres*, founds libraries in Catholic centers; the *Jeunesse ouvrière catholique* has published a little Guide, and 383 sections of the society have furnished to libraries in three years 40,000 volumes and pamphlets; the *Société de Saint-Vincent-de-Paul* gives books to poor families; the *Revue des lectures* furnishes lists of recommended books; the *Groupe Saint-Augustin* furthers the organization of independent libraries; the *Oeuvre des bibliothèques populaires catholiques* has its headquarters in Paris at 73 rue Notre-Dame-des-Champs.

The Protestants have published various manuals and lists of books and have also their parish libraries. The Jews have so far made only isolated efforts. Libraries for the blind are the work of the *Association Valentin Haüy pour le bien des aveugles*. The central office is Bibliothèque Braille, 9 rue Duroc, Paris.

In Paris there is a model children's library, *l'Heure joyeuse* (rue Boutebrie), which serves as an information bureau for the other children's libraries—unfortunately all too few—which are being established in different cities of France and Algeria.

To terminate this report, professional associations of librarians should be cited. The principal one is the *Association des bibliothécaires français*, [Association of French librarians], 8 place du Panthéon, which was founded in 1906.¹⁷ This Association has been publishing a bulletin

¹⁵ Paris, 52 avenue de Breteuil.

¹⁶ Paris, 2 rue de la Planchette.

¹⁷ See: Gabriel Henriot, *Un bilan de vingt années (1906-1926)*, which appeared in the *Annuaire de l'Association* (Paris, 1926).

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since its foundation. The *Association des anciens élèves de L'Ecole de bibliothécaires de Paris* [Alumni association of the Paris Library School], 10 rue de l'Elysée, Paris, is a group of modern librarians, graduates of this school.

Professional publications: *Revue des Bibliothèques*, founded in 1907 (Paris, Champion), the organ of the Association des bibliothécaires français from 1926 to 1931, now independent; *l'Annuaire des bibliothèques et des archives*, new edition (Paris, Champion, 1927); *la Lecture publique, mémoires et vœux du Congrès international d'Alger*, published by H. Lemaitre (Paris, Droz, 1931); and especially E. Coyecque, *La Bibliothèque publique moderne*, p. 37-58; G. Henriot, *Les Bibliothèques dans la vie moderne*, p. 59-74; G. Henriot, *La Ville de Paris et la lecture publique*, p. 111-133.

In spite of praiseworthy efforts made in recent years, it may be said that the question of popular libraries has hardly been submitted to public opinion and that public library service exists in France only in an embryonic state.

PARIS LIBRARY SCHOOL

This school, which was conducted in Paris by the American Library Association from 1924 to 1929, contributed constantly during that period to the popular library movement in France but was never identified with it, since the school, from the beginning, trained librarians for scholarly as well as for popular libraries and since from 1926 on it was an international school. It was however the outgrowth of the course for French public librarians which was given in Paris in the summer of 1923 by the American Library Association at the request of the American Committee for Devastated France.

During the five years of its existence, the Paris Library School, with faculty and lecturers drawn from twelve countries, trained students of twenty-five nationalities, many of whom were experienced librarians sent officially by institutions or governments, who returned to positions of leadership in the libraries of their own countries.

When the American Library Association completed its five-year

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demonstration period in 1929 on the eve of the financial crisis, no university or institution was found which could take over the school on a permanent basis. The Alumni Association, wishing to hold the school together in some way until more favorable times, has been caring for the school library in a room lent by the American Library in Paris and for four years it has, through volunteer work on the part of its members, maintained regular office hours, attended to correspondence and placement and has furnished technical information about library methods to numerous inquirers, including, among others, the author of a French handbook on the organization of popular libraries.—*Editor.*

GERMANY

I. PUBLIC LIBRARIES

BY DR. JOHANNES BEER, COUNCILOR FOR THE MUNICIPAL LIBRARY

(STADTBIBLIOTHEKSRAT), FRANKFORT-ON-THE-MAIN

TRANSLATED BY J. PERIAM DANTON,

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THE German public library (*Volksbucherei*)¹ both in its plan and in its purposes aims at contact with life and at effectiveness in dealing with living problems. Most of the scholarly libraries are intended to serve scholarly needs exclusively, except in a few cases where they meet, in addition, educational and cultural needs of a general sort. These scholarly libraries, that is, the state and national libraries, the university libraries, the libraries of the technical schools, etc., are supported entirely by the government or by the individual states. There are also a few purely scholarly city libraries which are supported by the municipalities. In general, the free public libraries have in common with all these scholarly institutions only the fact that they are organized for the circulation of books and the fact that, except in certain cases, they follow the same physical and administrative technique.

Side by side with the public libraries, are a few other libraries which are controlled by the points of view of certain special groups which they serve. For Catholicism there are the libraries of the *Borromäusverein*²; for Protestant interests, the parish libraries which

¹ The literal translation of this word is: The people's (or popular) library. Although the German concept of the word "*Volksbucherei*" is not exactly the same as our "public library," it is generally so translated.—*Translator's note.*

² A Catholic association named after Carlo Borromeo (1538-1584), intrepid and pious Italian cardinal who was canonized in 1610.—*Translator's note.*

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are united in the German Association of Evangelical Libraries (*Deutscher Verband Evangelischer Buchereien*); for Socialist interests the worker and trade union libraries under the National Committee for Socialist Educational Work (*Reichsausschuss für Sozialistische Bildungsarbeit*).

The free public libraries in Germany are in the main supported by the city or the community, which has either taken over already existing association libraries or has established new libraries.

The German library movement had its beginning during the period of liberalism. The establishment of the first libraries took place in the forties and fifties of the last century as a result of individual initiative. They were, in the first instance, supported by associations for popular education (*Volksbildungsvereinigungen*) of different types and points of view. In the eighties and nineties the library movement experienced a new growth, but even then essentially as a result of association activity, as in the cases of the Association for Ethical Culture (*Verein für Ethische Kultur*) and the Society for Popular Education (*Gesellschaft für Volksbildung*). In these decades, however, the city governments came more strongly to the forefront. Today the municipality is almost exclusively the supporter of the free public libraries. The individual German states play a relatively minor rôle in their control and development, and limit themselves mainly to the distribution of comparatively meager state subsidies. In addition, they supervise examinations, particularly in Prussia and Saxony, and in this connection they are the supporters of the library schools. In Prussia there are library schools, with state recognition, in Berlin, Cologne and Stettin, and these are occasionally associated with city libraries. In addition, the library school of the *Borromäusverein* in Bonn, and the library courses which are held at the present time in Breslau, have state recognition. The library school for Saxony is in Leipzig. The individual German states are, furthermore, the supporters of advisory bureaus for public library affairs (*Beratungsstellen für das Volksbüchereiwesen*) of which more will be said later on.

As there is no library law in the German Republic or in the indi-

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vidual German states, the initiative in library organization is left almost exclusively to the cities and local communities, except as the advisory bureaus are able to exert practical influence. Accordingly, there is no central organization for German public library affairs. However, all German public libraries have united to form the Association of German Public Librarians (*Verband Deutscher Volksbibliothekare*), which works toward making the public library-minded and attempts to achieve general library aims. The Association has headquarters in Berlin. The *Yearbook of German public libraries*, (*Jahrbuch der Deutschen Volksbüchereien*) has appeared under the auspices of the Association since 1926. Two professional periodicals, *Bücherei und Bildungspflege*, edited by Dr. Johannes Beer, City Public Libraries, Frankfort-on-the-Main, and the *Hefte für Büchereiwesen*, edited by Hans Hofmann of Berlin, further serve to coordinate library activities.

Two central institutions active in matters concerned with German public libraries may be mentioned—the publishing firm, *Bücherei und Bildungspflege*, of Stettin, from which a great deal of professional literature appears and the director of which is Dr. Ackerknecht of the city library; and the Institute for Information about Readers and Literature (*Institut für Leser-und Schrifttumskunde*) in Leipzig, which is directed by Dr. Walter Hofmann and which has occupied itself principally with questions concerned with readers' catalogs and statistics of readers. In Stettin, as well as in Leipzig, there are, furthermore, stores for the purchase of books and library equipment, such as the publishing firm, *Bücherei und Bildungspflege*, in Stettin, and the *Deutsche Zentralstelle für Volkstümliches Büchereiwesen*, Library Department, in Leipzig.

The first public presentation of German public library work took place in 1931 at the Flensburg Library Exposition (*Flensburger Büchereiausstellung*) which was prepared by Dr. Franz Schriewer on the occasion of the Baltic anniversary (*Ostseejahr*). This exposition showed German public library conditions in comparison with those of the Scandinavian countries and presented the facts graphically by means of a large map. The information in the *Yearbook* for 1929-30,

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insofar as it could be secured in complete form for individual libraries, was collected and prepared for the exposition. The following figures were presented: In 374 cities and towns having a total population of 23,362,063 inhabitants (in 1929) there were 668 libraries with total book resources of 4,302,360 volumes (.18 volumes per capita). In these libraries there were 613,579 active readers (2.6 per cent of the population) of which 60.4 per cent were men and 39.6 women. In 1929-30 these readers borrowed 13,143,153 volumes, of which 75.6 per cent were poetry, drama, *belles lettres* and fiction and 24.4 per cent instructive literature. The libraries were staffed by 127 principal officers and 270 subordinate librarians. The expenditures for German municipal libraries, including state appropriations, were, in 1929-1930, approximately 21 pfennigs³ per capita for Germany's population of 64,500,000. In comparison with this it may be pointed out that Denmark in the same period expended 90 pfennigs⁴ per capita. Naturally these figures can give only an approximate picture of German library conditions, since a considerable number of libraries for which accurate statistics were not available were not taken into consideration and the statistics of libraries not administered by municipalities are not included.

As a result of the absence of central control, German public library development has assumed many forms. The consequent lack of uniformity which makes difficult, not only generalization but also accurate comparison, offers an advantage in that individual libraries have been able to adapt themselves to the specific needs of their localities, and in this way it has been possible to test different types of libraries. The main types in Germany are the following:

1. The village library, generally connected with the school.
2. The small city library, also generally in a school, or some other public building.
3. The regular public library in medium-sized cities or the branch library (*Quartierbücherei*) in the metropolis.
4. The central library which cooperates with the district around it.

³ Approximately five cents.—*Translator's note.*

⁴ Approximately twenty-two and a half cents.—*Translator's note.*

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In general, this is a city library with an advisory service for the surrounding country; an exception occurs in the case of the only provincial central library (*Landeswanderbücherei*) for Pomerania in Stettin. This is a central library in the literal sense of the phrase, and its collections are intended exclusively for the needs of the district libraries. In its organization it is completely disassociated from the public library of the city of Stettin, in spite of the fact that its administrative personnel is the same.

5. The *geschlossene Einheitsbücherei*, a type of library which serves, in addition to popular library demands, scholarly needs in the narrower sense.⁵

6. The *geteilte Einheitsbücherei*, a type similar to the one above except that the scholarly and popular library collections are separate.⁵

The technical organization of the German public library is also of many kinds. The open shelf policy is comparatively rare and has been introduced principally in the branches of a few large municipal libraries. Book cards are generally used now, as formerly, in lending books at the circulation desk. The most diverse developments of both forms may be found. Children's reading rooms are still comparatively few; there are approximately forty in the whole German Republic (for example, in Berlin, Frankfort-on-the-Main and Munich). Separate arrangements for lending books to young people have not been provided to any great degree. Such arrangements exist in about sixty libraries in Germany. Hospital libraries and prison libraries are in the main taken care of by the librarians of the city libraries, but there is at the present time no definite promotion in this field. Such promotion will be arranged for by the Association of German Public Librarians (*Verband Deutscher Volksbibliothekare*).

The particular form assumed by the traveling library is that of book-wagons for the Saar district and for the suburbs of Dresden, Frankfort-

⁵ As the author has pointed out, most German public libraries do not serve "scholarly" needs. The two types of libraries named in "5" and "6," however, do serve these needs in addition to "popular" ones. There are no English equivalents for these terms: *geschlossene Einheitsbücherei* means closed unit library, and *geteilte Einheitsbücherei* means separate unit library.—*Translator's note.*

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on-the-Main and Cologne. Munich has also inaugurated the traveling library and uses the street car for this purpose.

The open country in Germany has always been more sparsely supplied with libraries than have the cities. To compensate for this, advisory bureaus for public library affairs have been established by the individual states. In general, these bureaus are connected with a well-developed city library and from these as headquarters they seek to advise and assist in the erection of libraries throughout a greater or smaller portion of the surrounding country. The advisory bureaus of the provinces of East Prussia, Pomerania, Grenzmark, Lower and Upper Silesia, Saxony, Schleswig-Holstein, Hannover, and Westphalia have displayed particularly great activity. The bureaus in the states of Saxony, Thuringia, Bavaria and Hesse have also exercised an active and successful influence. Additional bureaus are in process of being established; at the present time there are all together thirty.

During the past decade great progress has been made by the public libraries in cataloging activities. This statement refers to the printed catalog for readers. There may be mentioned especially the representative catalogs of certain great libraries, such as those of Stettin, Flensburg, Berlin-Spandau, Cologne, Darmstadt, Allenstein and Breslau; the German National Bibliography series (*Deutsche Volksbibliographie*), published by the Institute for Information About Readers and Literature (*Institut für Leser- und Schrifttumskunde*), and the standard lists issued by the publishing firm Bücherei und Bildungspflege.

There is no complete set of statistics for all German public libraries. This accounts for the fact that there are still numerous sources of error in the *Yearbook*. A few libraries, particularly those of the large cities, have prepared highly detailed statistics, and a great deal of material is being collected by the Institute for Information. The first result of this work is the volume by Walter Hofmann, *The reading of women* (*Die Lektüre der Frau*) which appeared a short time ago.⁶

⁶ Hofmann, Walter. *Die Lektüre der Frau; ein Beitrag zur Leserkunde und zur Leserführung . . .* (Leipzig, 1931).—*Translator's note.*

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In general, one may say that men comprise approximately two-thirds and women one-third of the readers in the German public libraries. In the larger cities there will be, on the average, three per cent of the inhabitants who are active library readers, but in the country the figures vary greatly. In the branches of large city libraries, located in working districts, proletarian readers may comprise as many as ninety to ninety-five per cent of the total. On the other hand there are libraries in small and middle-sized cities which serve principally readers from the middle class. At present a remarkable phenomenon in German libraries is the rapidly increasing number of unemployed readers, which, in some libraries is as great as seventy-five per cent. Thus the library is faced with new duties which it has difficulty in meeting because of the present meagerness of funds.

Funds for ambitious new structures have not been available, and people have had to content themselves with the most expedient disposition of the available space. A detailed account of conditions in this respect may be found in the book by Wieser and Ackerknecht (Bibliography, III).

The relationship of the German public libraries to the public academies (*Volkshochschule*) and to other institutions concerned with adult education, is not, generally speaking, a formal one, but there is, on the other hand, almost always a certain cooperation between the two. A close relationship between the public academy (*Volkshochschule*) and the public library has been achieved in Stettin and in Frankfort-on-the-Main.

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II. STUDENT LIBRARIES

BY DR. RICHARD OEHLER, DIRECTOR OF THE CITY
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TRANSLATED BY J. PERIAM DANTON,
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Since the war there have been established at a few universities in Germany so-called student libraries, which may be considered academic public libraries.

They owe their establishment to a pressing intellectual need. The university and seminar libraries are purely scholarly collections. The student wishes, however, and he should be able, to acquire a general education above and beyond his professional training.

In general, the central and seminar libraries are not in a position to serve these needs. Either they do not have material in which the spirit of today is reflected, or else books to provide a general education are in so great demand that only a few readers can actually secure them. The student libraries attempt to remedy these deficiencies.

No heavy scholarly collections will be found in them. The student is not expected to pursue his professional studies here; rather it is intended that he shall read deeply in Homer, Virgil, Horace, Dante, Shakespeare, Goethe, and so on down to the most significant writers of the present; that he shall read the biographies of important persons of all callings, collections of letters, and memoirs and travels. The literature of legend, sagas, customs and *mores* of all times and peoples, and all types of writing designed to enrich one's view of the world, are to be found in these libraries; one finds here also such works in individual fields of knowledge as will interest and be understandable to one who is not a specialist. Above all, the libraries contain the newest political, religious, philosophical, pedagogical and similar pamphlets. Moreover, these libraries contain a carefully chosen collection of periodicals, representing as many viewpoints as possible.

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Because of the purpose of such libraries it follows that they are not allowed to grow undirected, and no effort is made at speed in increasing the size of their collections. On the contrary, outdated material, no longer of value, is disposed of. At the same time there is naturally a certain core of literature which remains permanently.

The student library is not a lending library; there are no stacks; no routine, no borrowers' cards—the books, pamphlets and periodicals are to be found in the same rooms in which they are used and read. The aim is to give the readers the feeling of being in their own intellectual world and for this reason considerable emphasis is laid on comfortable surroundings as little like a formal library as possible. Furniture, pictures, and so on, give the atmosphere of a private home.

Readers are encouraged to aid in building up the collection. To this end there is available a "want" book to which the administration constantly calls attention.

The idea of the student library did not originate in Germany, but it received a peculiarly individual form in that country.

The first student library was opened in Bonn in 1917; a second was opened in 1927, in Breslau, and finally one was begun in Frankfort-on-the-Main, in 1929. Suitable rooms in private or official buildings near the university are chosen. It would be desirable if the student libraries could be accommodated in student houses, such as have recently been established in a great number of German university cities. Unfortunately, however, at the time of their establishment it was not thought sufficiently important to provide for student libraries in them.

The means for establishment and maintenance is provided partly by various government boards and other bodies, such as ministries, state and city administrations or societies of friends of the university, and partly by the students themselves. Every student, whether he uses the library or not, is assessed a small sum (from fifty pfennigs to one mark) each semester.

Where libraries of the type indicated have been established they have found enthusiastic acclaim. The following open communication sent at the time of the establishment of a student library by a group of

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students may serve as proof of this: "How often as young students we stood in front of the windows of a bookstore and saw all the enticing new books, one or the other of which we should have loved to have in our hands to look at. But we were too shy or too proud to go inside and ask permission to look at a book. And even if we had, we should only have had a few moments to turn the leaves. And now? A few weeks ago there was established in Bonn a library which is to provide recent publications for the students. In the bright rooms of this library there are small tables, sofas and chairs, and between them, serving as dividing partitions, are bookcases; there are comfortable corners in which one may take from the shelves a friend to entertain or instruct one. It is not necessary to sign a borrower's card or to ask permission from an official; one simply gets for himself what he wishes. The newest works in science and art, in economics and politics, and above all in the field of *belles lettres*, are provided there. It is precisely this last class of books to which students generally have the greatest difficulty of access. There is no supervision here; everything is to be found and one may decide for oneself as to its value. What an abundance of inspiration can emanate from such a happy arrangement!"

GREAT BRITAIN

BY JOHN D. COWLEY,

COUNTY LIBRARIAN, LANCASHIRE, ENGLAND

PUBLIC libraries in Great Britain owe their origin to a select committee of the House of Commons which reported in 1849 in favour of the establishment of these institutions. At the time the only popular library provision in the country consisted of the libraries of the mechanics' institutes, of which there were stated to be four hundred in existence. At the time of the introduction of William Ewart's bill in 1850, however, most of the institute libraries were already derelict owing to the lack of means to provide for their upkeep. While it was natural therefore that the promoters of the bill, having the mechanics' institutes in mind, should have intended the new libraries only for the poor but intelligent working man in the large towns, it is surprising that they should have restricted their income to the meagre product of one penny rate.¹ Further it was unfortunate that no means could be found of bringing public libraries into touch with organized education. The first Education Act was not passed until 1870, when no one seems to have thought of combining the education and library services; the idea was envisaged, but only half-heartedly pursued, in 1919;² and it was not one of the

¹ Ministry of Reconstruction. Adult Education Committee. 3d Interim report 1919. par. 4: "This partial and unequal development is probably due to the want of foresight of the original promoters of the movement, who assumed that the institutions would appeal only to the artisan classes of the large centres of population."

² It was strongly recommended by the Adult Education Committee of the Ministry of Reconstruction. 3d Interim report. 1919. par. 55.

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recommendations of the departmental committee which reported in 1927.

The two provisions of the 1850 Act which had the most far reaching effects were the choice of towns of 10,000 inhabitants or more as units of library administration and the limitation of the rate to one half-penny. Both these provisions were afterward extended, but their evil influence remained. In many cases such municipal units of administration were, and they still are, too small to provide a really effective service, and although later acts, notably that of 1892, provided the opportunity for neighbouring districts and parishes to combine, little advantage was taken of this facility. The governing bodies of the smaller units, which stood most in need of cooperation, were most lacking in breadth of vision or the will to sacrifice complete autonomy in return for greater efficiency. In such circumstances it is not surprising that public libraries have been ill-housed and ill-cared for and that any honest man, however lacking in education, initiative or administrative capacity, was considered in many parts of the country good enough to be a public librarian. No national system of library service was envisaged in 1850, nor was it apparently thought of until 1919,³ when most of the larger towns and many smaller units had already adopted the Acts and only the poorest towns and the villages were without service. Hence the Act of 1919, which permitted county councils to adopt the Acts and for the first time made it feasible to provide library facilities for the whole of England⁴ led to no immediate improvement in the organization of the service, although it tended to encourage the amalgamation of small library authorities with the county councils. Even the departmental committee therefore, reporting in 1927, while regarding it as essential that library authorities serving populations up to 20,000 should cooperate with larger units, did not report in favour of compulsory cooperation or amalgamation.⁵

³ Ministry of Reconstruction. Adult Education Committee. 3d Interim report. pars. 32-36.

⁴ The Scottish Education Act of 1918 had the same effect for that country.

⁵ Board of Education. Public Libraries Committee. Report, par. 81.

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While the limitation of the power of adoption to urban units led to haphazard organization, the rate limitation induced definite starvation. Under the Act of 1850 authorities were not allowed to purchase books, but this provision was revoked in the Act of 1855, which permitted the levying of a one-penny rate; the limitation remained, however, in spite of efforts made by the Library Association and the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust to have it removed, until 1919 in England and Wales, when it was abolished entirely, and until 1920 in Scotland, when it was raised to threepence. The effect of the limitation was that all but the largest units of administration found it difficult to find sufficient income for the purchase and repair of books as well as for the maintenance of buildings, salaries of staffs, poorly paid as they were, and loan charges on buildings not provided by the generosity of Andrew Carnegie or his trustees. Some of the larger towns obtained relief by way of local acts empowering them to levy more than the statutory penny,⁶ but it is only the wealthier communities which can afford the expenses of a local bill and those most in need of it were unable to obtain relief. The rise in prices which took place during the war reduced the purchasing power of library authorities to such an extent that many were unable to maintain their book stocks in a state of efficiency or to carry out even necessary repairs and alterations to buildings. This state of things continued in the case of many small authorities for many years after the removal of the rate limitation by the Act of 1919.

In spite of the crippling conditions under which public libraries were maintained for the first seventy years very definite progress was made during this incubatory period. Even before the passing of the 1850 Act, in 1848, Warrington had established a public library under the Museums Act of 1845. Early adoptions of the Act included Winchester, Manchester, Bolton, Ipswich and Oxford, but authorities generally did not show any great eagerness to take up the powers granted them by law. In the first three decades there were seventy-eight adoptions in

⁶ In the Adams Report of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, published in 1915, the number of such authorities was given as 55.

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England and Wales and six instances of powers obtained by local acts.⁷

The period of greatest activity was from 1890 to 1909, when 271 authorities adopted the Acts, largely influenced by the generosity of Andrew Carnegie and J. Passmore Edwards, both of whom gave away immense sums of money for the erection of library buildings. It is said that of 437 towns in England and Wales possessing public libraries, 213 have received grants in aid from Carnegie; in Scotland 50 out of 77 have been so helped.⁸ Although it was always a condition for the receipt of a Carnegie grant that a free site should be provided and provision made under the Public Libraries Acts for the maintenance of the library, it was unfortunate that the buildings obtained were in many cases architecturally undesirable and the Acts were adopted without proper consideration for the future; many of the buildings have proved so costly to maintain that authorities have found it impossible to find sufficient money for books, and others have had to be modernized in the last few years at considerable expense. These unsatisfactory results, not of Carnegie's munificence, but of shortsightedness on the part of local authorities, decided the Carnegie United Kingdom Trustees not to give any further grants for buildings. In recent years grants have been given for books only.

In the period following the war many of the more liberal-minded municipal authorities have planned and erected new central buildings or branches long overdue, have provided new services, such as technical and commercial libraries, or have broadened the scope of their work by instituting children's story hours, wireless listening groups, etc. The most significant feature of the last thirteen years, however, has been the extension of public library services to the rural areas, made possible in Scotland by the Education (Scotland) Act, 1918, which permitted county education authorities (since 1929 the county councils) to provide books for areas where there is no municipal library, and in England and Wales by the Public Libraries Act, 1919, which allows a county

⁷ Board of Education. Public Libraries Committee. Report, 1927. Table X.

⁸ Minto, J. History of the public library movement in Great Britain and Ireland. 1932. p.309.

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council to adopt the Acts for all parts of the administrative county not served by an existing authority. Under one or other of these Acts practically every county council in Great Britain has become a library authority and the ideal of universal service is rapidly being achieved.⁹

Here again, as in the case of urban libraries, a movement has taken place on the initiative not of the Government or indeed of the Library Association, but of an entirely independent body. The Carnegie United Kingdom Trustees, who inherited in 1913 the fund left by Carnegie, invited Professor W. G. S. Adams to prepare a report on library provision and policy, which they published in 1915. From this report it was apparent that only 60 per cent of the population of Great Britain resided in areas provided with public libraries. The Trust decided, therefore, to develop a policy which, by combining parishes and small urban districts for library purposes, should enable the necessary expenditure to be spread over a wide area. The only unit available for the purpose was the county, and, after one or two experiments, the Trustees were instrumental in obtaining statutory authority for the establishment of county libraries. Their generous grants towards the capital expenses enabled county councils in England and Wales, and education authorities in Scotland, to take advantage of their powers. By this means a population of over 12,000,000 out of a total of nearly 38,000,000 in England and Wales alone has been brought within reach of public library facilities.

At their inception county libraries were intended primarily to serve only the rural areas; some county authorities, however, undertook service to the unprovided urban districts within their areas from the beginning and it gradually became recognized that county councils could and would provide permanent branch libraries for urban centres of population. The Departmental Committee proposed in 1927 that "every county council should now be constituted the library authority for the whole of its area, so far as it is not already covered."¹⁰ The

⁹ Only three counties in England and Wales and one in Scotland are without a county library service.

¹⁰ Board of Education. Public Libraries Committee. Report. 1927. par. 298.

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Carnegie Trustees strongly supported this policy and again offered grants towards the cost of service in urban areas. Several counties themselves formulated a policy for branch libraries, and new buildings have been erected in some areas. In England and Wales branch libraries have been erected under the principle of differential rating, whereby the extra cost of buildings, staff, etc., falls on the district served.¹¹ In Scotland differential rating is not used, the whole cost of the library service being taken from the education fund.

It has already been pointed out that the organization of public library service in municipal units instead of as a national service has been and still is one of the fundamental defects of the system. The necessity for a national service was first urged by the Adult Education Committee in their Third Interim Report (1919),¹² which outlined a scheme for the fuller development of the National Central Library (then the Central Library for Students). The Committee suggested that the Central Library should not only lend to the individual student from its own stock, but should act as an intermediary between the public libraries and university, technical and specialist libraries. This policy has been steadily followed by the governing body of the Central Library, which now has "outlier" libraries, on the resources of which it may draw. The Report of the Departmental Committee in 1927 advocated the grouping of public libraries in voluntary systems of cooperation, now called regional library systems. Three such schemes are now in being, one embracing the northern counties of England with a central bureau at the Literary and Philosophical Society's Library in Newcastle, another including the west midland counties, with the centre at Birmingham, and another for Wales. A further scheme is contemplated for Middlesex and the home counties. No regional schemes have yet been started in Scotland, where the smaller municipal and county libraries depend for special books on the Scottish Central Library for Students at Dunfermline.

¹¹ See the present writer's paper in *Library Association Record*, v. 1, (3d series) 1931, p.113-21, 185-91, 225-30, for a description of the organization of county branch libraries in England and Wales.

¹² Pars. 32-36.

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Up to fifteen or twenty years ago the visitor to a typical British public library would have found himself entering a two storey building constructed of brick with stone facings, designed generally in a style obscurely termed neo-Greek. On passing through the entrance hall he might have been confronted with a counter surmounted by a machine known as an "indicator." There were originally some twenty varieties of this device, but the principle of all of them is the same. They consisted of a glass screen behind which were columns of tiny shelves each large enough to hold a card or block displaying the number of a book. The numbers appeared of course in numerical order and the background of red or blue indicated to the public that the book was either in or out.

The borrower had therefore to look up his book in the catalogue and then consult the indicator to see whether it was in or out before demanding it at the counter.¹⁸ The indicator dates back to 1863; in 1894 James Duff Brown introduced safeguarded open access at Clerkenwell Public Library, and, although for a time a controversy raged over the respective merits of indicators and open access, the latter system quickly won its way and is now practically universal throughout the country.

The present day borrower finds on entering the lending department a charging desk, consisting of an enclosure for two or more assistants, with counters for the charging trays and a wicket gate on either side with a locking device controlled from inside the enclosure. On applying for a ticket he will be required to fill up a form of application, which generally must include a ratepayer's guarantee if the applicant is not himself a ratepayer, although up-to-date authorities are tending to dispense with this requirement. In most libraries he will receive one ticket entitling him to a volume of either fiction or non-fiction, a second ticket available for non-fiction only, and a third available for music only. Some libraries issue as many as three non-fiction tickets to borrowers who ask for them. After receiving his tickets the borrower will pass on through the wicket, or, if he has previously borrowed, will

¹⁸ For descriptions of indicators see Brown, J. D. *Manual of library economy*. 3d ed. 1920. pars. 387 et seq.; 4th ed. 1931. pars. 437 et seq.

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pause while his books are discharged and then pass on to the shelves. Except in the newest libraries he will find shelves about seven feet in height, the island stacks arranged radially so as to remain in view of the assistant at the charging desk throughout their length, and containing from 20,000 to 40,000 volumes. The shelves themselves are generally of steel finished in dark green, a type which until quite recently has had a great vogue in this country. In the newest libraries, however, steel has been abandoned in favour of wooden fittings specially designed to harmonize with the building. The lending departments of new branches at Leeds and Sheffield have no island stacks, and all books are displayed on wall shelving about six feet in height and on special display stands holding only a few books. Such libraries only contain from 10,000 to 15,000 volumes and are content to display a small stock well rather than to cram as many books as possible into the lending department. In the new branches of the Lancashire County Library shelving of the ordinary type is not used at all, but the books are carried on racks and stands which hold three or four rows of books at a height of two feet six inches to three feet six inches from the floor and tilted towards the light. This method further limits the number of volumes on view, but it is found that a room with 1,000 square feet of space will easily hold 7,000 volumes, and records of 100,000 issues per annum for populations of 10,000 indicate that the public make good use of the material provided.

The books are classified almost everywhere according to the Dewey system. In industrial areas and under the poorer authorities unfortunately many of the books are dirty and shabby, but all librarians endeavour as far as their resources permit to weed out the dirty and old fashioned books.

Through the facilities of the National Central Library and the regional library systems it is now possible to obtain almost any book, except school text-books and limited editions, through a public library.

Books for home use are charged usually by the system of taking a card from the book and placing it in the borrower's ticket. If he wishes to make use of the reference department or the reading room he will

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probably find these on either side of the entrance hall, but as they are separated from the lending department only by glass screens he will remain under the observation of the assistant at the charging desk. If the library contains a large reference department this may be found on the first floor with an assistant in charge of it. In the reference department will be found a selection of quick reference books, the more serious periodicals, and sets of transactions of learned societies, particularly those of local antiquarian societies. Rare or very expensive books, such as cannot be easily replaced, are also kept here. In the reading room will be found the more important national and local newspapers, displayed on racks appropriately named "slopes," while on the tables are a selection of popular magazines. Some libraries maintain a separate room, or a separate table in the reading-room, for ladies. This practice indicates only too clearly the character of those who frequent the newsrooms, which are often the resort of idlers, tramps and people in search of betting news. Most librarians would gladly dispense with this part of the service and spend the money so saved in books. On the other hand the lending and reference departments are used by all classes of the community, although the lower middle and working classes naturally form the bulk of the borrowers; economic conditions are however driving the formerly well to do to the public library, where they are finding to their surprise that the service is even better than that of the first class subscription libraries. Teachers and the clergy are borrowers in large numbers and probably form the backbone of the intellectual class of users.

Most British public libraries provide services in addition to those described above. Municipal committees generally are in touch with the literary and scientific societies in their areas and some provide rooms for meetings or accommodation for special libraries belonging to these societies, while the fallacy that libraries have nothing to do with education is exposed by those authorities who arrange courses of lectures of an informing kind, or, more recently, organize wireless listening groups. Special exhibitions or book lists are usually arranged in connection with such courses. County libraries as a rule lend sets of text

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books to adult education classes for their use during a whole session. Further efforts are being made to organize a regular supply of books from public libraries to the hospitals and a joint committee of the Library Association and the British Red Cross Society has been set up to encourage this movement.

The status of the public librarian himself naturally varies according to the standing of the authority which he serves; in a small urban district he may be little more than a caretaker and book selection is in the hands of a member of the committee. In a county borough or city he is definitely one of the administrative officers, fully trusted by his committee and capable of selecting books, appointing members of the staff, specifying buildings and fittings and organizing an up-to-date service.

At present however many hundreds of junior assistants and many chief librarians of considerable towns have not the education which would be appropriate in a learned profession and very few chief librarians have a university degree; degrees are becoming more plentiful, but until more encouragement is given to university men and women to enter the public library service it is unlikely that the status of the personnel will improve. The value of such a method of recruiting would lie not only in the improved standard of education, but in a greater readiness on the part of the other local government officials to recognize librarians as members of a profession and increased confidence on the part of the public in their capabilities. Librarians would, in fact, be able to meet any member of the public, however professional, on equal terms.

Hardly less important than the necessity for an improvement in general education is the question of professional education. At present two methods of training are available, viz., the course leading to a diploma at the School of Librarianship of the University of London and the series of examinations held by the Library Association, neither of which provides entirely satisfactory results. No special course of preparation is provided for the Library Association examinations, other than by correspondence, although summer schools are held both in Scot-

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land and England and courses of lectures have been available at Manchester; nor does the strictly technical nature of the examinations tend to emphasize the desirability of a good general standard of education. The university course on the other hand does not provide the practical experience which those who take the Library Association examinations acquire at their daily work.

Only five years ago the Library Association celebrated its jubilee, and set to work to improve its position as a professional body. The Association has never been in any sense a trade union, and its objects may be described briefly as the general improvement of the library services of the country and their personnel, but its weakness has generally been the failure to produce a policy.

It is noticeable that hardly any advance has been made in the public library service purely on the initiative of the Association, apart from the removal of the rate limit, the institution of professional education, which it began as far back as 1893, and the agreement with the Publishers' and Booksellers' Associations for a discount on books purchased by public and university libraries; the widespread adoption of the Acts, the extension of the service to country districts, the foundation of the Central Libraries for Students, and the establishment of regional schemes have all been due to external influences, Andrew Carnegie and his Trustees in particular. This I believe to be due to the inferior official status of public librarians, who must always form the backbone of the Association. It is, therefore, likely to be a source of strength to the professional body to encourage, as has been done lately, members of local authorities to join the Association. Similarly the institution of sections representing counties, university and research libraries, and assistants is giving more opportunities for the study of particular points of view and is drawing into the Association many who previously felt that they had little chance either of making their voices heard or of receiving assistance from the Association.

The Association of Assistant Librarians had already done much to improve the status of assistants before its amalgamation with the Library Association in 1930 and continues, as a section of the Associa-

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tion, to undertake the whole of the organization of correspondence courses for the examinations and the publication of the *Library Assistant*.

Perhaps the most promising feature of the public libraries of Great Britain is that the service is now practically coterminous with the national boundaries. With only a few exceptions it may be said that any person, however remotely situated, can obtain any book that a public library may reasonably be expected to provide. Whatever the defects of the smaller libraries, the fact remains that the machinery exists to provide every reader with the book he wants and it only breaks down for lack of enlightened men or women, acting as officials or members of committees, to put it in motion. The removal of the two defects referred to above, viz., the existence of too many small units and the lack of coordination with the education services, would do much to improve the efficiency of the machine. County libraries have already demonstrated the success with which town libraries can be worked as branches of a large system and librarians can act as assistants to a director of education. The other reproach which has been levelled against the library system, that it is a service for the poor only, is being steadily lived down; more and more the professional and industrial classes are coming to look on the public library as the natural source for both general and specialized information.

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GREECE

BY WILLIAM MILLER, AUTHOR AND NEWSPAPER

CORRESPONDENT, ATHENS

NOTHING that may be called a popular library exists as yet in Greece, except a few small collections at the Piraeus, Pyrgos, Candia (Erakleion), Volos, Mitylene and Tripolis. There are learned libraries and subscription libraries, but free public libraries seem to be in their infancy. Historical works are largely bought and the newspapers, more than elsewhere, publish articles about Greek medieval (*not* ancient) and modern history.

GUATEMALA

BY R. ARÉVALO MARTINEZ, DIRECTOR,

NATIONAL LIBRARY, GUATEMALA

TRANSLATED BY MILES O. PRICE, LAW LIBRARIAN,

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

THE most important libraries in Guatemala are the official public libraries, dependent upon the Ministry of Public Education, and supported entirely by funds from the State. There are also libraries of scientific or literary institutions, such as the universities, the principal schools, those under state authority, etc., and in addition may be noted the generous movement of the *Universidad Popular* led by university students, which has established with good results several public libraries in the outlying districts of the principal cities.

It is well to observe also that in the past few years Guatemala has not been unaware of the world movement toward the multiplication and perfecting of libraries, and that a great number have been established in many places, in the garrisons, in the barracks, in the municipalities, in the political districts, in the military districts, and in the schools, down to the smallest villages. As director of the metropolitan National Library I have been enabled to follow this movement with sympathetic consideration, since not a week passes that some newly established library does not solicit a donation of books, solicitations extended also to other branches of the State and to private individuals.

As the official type is the one which is foremost, I shall describe how the *Biblioteca Nacional Central* of Guatemala functions. Libraries of this kind exist not only in the capitals of the departments and in

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the principal cities, but even in the smallest towns—libraries which do not differ in function from that of the capital, except that they are naturally smaller and less important.

The National Library performs two functions. The first is to select and guard the 15,000 volumes which are contained in it. The second is to maintain constant intellectual relations with similar institutions and with the literati of all the world.

In carrying out the first of its missions, the library is the guardian of those national books which may be the sources of study for the country's history and geography; and the Guatemalan Section, composed of the works of national authors, is the most complete possible. But though the library endeavors to be a good type of what some call *Biblioteca Cerrada* (locked or closed library), used only by specialists, it is also vastly interested in what is called the *Biblioteca Viva* (living library). It thus exercises a generally beneficial function. The *Biblioteca Viva* affords facilities for studying textbooks, encyclopedias, manuals, and other reference works, and it has ready for readers the classics of all countries—an example of the ultimate aim of a collection of books. That is to say, the *Biblioteca Viva* is the one which offers daily spiritual nourishment to the citizens, and aids students with their work. The National Library is a composite library and attempts to be efficient in both ways. It has not wished to acquire books merely to convert itself into a heaped-up accumulation of volumes, but it has procured a good staff to take care of what it has, convinced that 10,000 volumes well cataloged do more good than 100,000 in disorder.

The director, after careful study to determine the best system of classification, decided on the Decimal system. The three volumes of the International Institute of Bibliography, of Brussels, entitled *Classification Décimale Universale*, have served as texts for inculcating the system in the library, which has in fact been converted into a school of library service.

The support of the Ministry of Public Education, given during these difficult times, has been constant, and has permitted the acquisition of excellent additions of great value.

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At the present time there is to be observed in all the states of America a desire for closer relations and solidarity. With all of them there has been established a plan for sending national books to other peoples of the continent. This admirable manner of creating Pan-American fusion, by making known the literature of each nation to its sister nations, was initiated by the Argentine Republic. Uruguay followed and immediately after came Guatemala, then, without exception, the rest of the countries of America.

The National Library has endowed the world with the great works of our literature. José Batres Montúfar, José Milla, Alberto Velásquez, Osmundo Arriola, José Matos, Rodríques Cerna, Wyld Ospina, Hernández de León, Gómez Carrillo, etc., have been made known to the rest of the world. Particularly with two books, in each of which the library collaborated—the admirable *Estampas Guatemaltecas*, and the *Parnaso Guatemalteco* of Father Rey Soto—we have assisted in furthering acquaintance with our national literature of every kind.

This effort to maintain intellectual relations, giving the various kinds of information solicited from us, often requiring exhaustive study, and especially representing our country as a living entity in the concert of modern civilization, has been the most important and difficult task of this library. By means of correspondence innumerable points of contact have been established between the directors of libraries and those who occupy distinguished positions in similar centers.

We have prepared ourselves by compiling carefully a detailed list of the principal centers of culture, of men of letters or science, and of periodicals of the entire world.

By decree of the Minister of Public Education a Commission of Bibliographical Technique has been formed, in conformity with a resolution of the directors of the sixth American international council for the organization of continental bibliographical cooperation, held in Havana, which recommended an investigation of the bibliographical situation of each of the members of the Pan-American Union.

Persistent effort has borne fruit in increasing the number of readers, whose regular attendance has made our library a living thing. Almost

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no thesis of value, or school essay, but has derived from its precincts.

There are in Guatemala no libraries especially for children, but each national public library has a children's section.

At the present time the library is considered, after the school, the principal educational medium. The means by which a well organized library contributes to shape the present generation, morally, intellectually, and even physically, is thereby amplified. Today the school comprehends that its task is to teach how to study, and true study is accomplished for the most part in the libraries.

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All bibliographical guides which refer to intellectual production since Independence (1821) are lacking.

At present Sr. Gilberto Valenzuela, member of the Commission of Bibliographical Technique, has ready for publication a volume containing references to all works printed in Guatemala since the Independence (1821 to 1930); that is to say, continuing the Guatemalan bibliographical

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guide from the point where Medina ended his work. Valenzuela's work comprises more than 10,000 bibliographical entries, and when it is published, possibly Guatemala will be the Hispanic-American country possessing the most complete bibliographical information.

The *Bulletin of the National Library* is published every three months. It has for its object to make known the national output of literature, and, in general, to give bibliographical notes concerning the most important works of the entire world.

In 1932 was issued a printed catalog, in book form, of works which make up the National Library.

I believe that Guatemala is the first country of Hispano-America to publish a catalog according to the rules of the International Bibliographical Institute of Brussels and its Decimal System. Of course as a reference catalog, though it is an earnest attempt, it has many defects; but it represents a well-intended effort, carried out with small means and without more instruction than that of the French text of the above mentioned Institute.

HAITI

THERE are no public libraries in Haiti. There are a few private libraries connected with local educational institutions but they are not open to the general public.

HAWAIIAN ISLANDS

BY LAURA ROBSON SUTHERLAND,

HEAD OF STATIONS DEPARTMENT,

LIBRARY OF HAWAII

IN 1879, some of Honolulu's public-spirited citizens organized the Honolulu Workingmen's Library Association, hoping to combat the evils of the saloon as a recreational center. Thinking that "no respectable woman would object to associating with mechanics," library privileges were extended to women. Upon a government appropriation of \$1,200 in 1886 for book purchase and gift of a building site, some "worthy" children from government schools were allowed to draw books. This subscription library merged with the free public library which opened the doors of the new Carnegie building in 1913.

The Territory contributed a portion of the building fund and guaranteed maintenance. The new Library of Hawaii soon assumed the duties of a state library and began sending out book shipments to points throughout the Territory. This work grew speedily to unwieldy proportions and a smaller unit seemed necessary.

The eight islands of the Hawaiian group are divided into four counties. Modelled after the California County Library Law, legal steps were taken in 1921 to permit each county to have its own library system. Oddly enough, the organization differs in each county, although the maintenance comes from territorial funds proportionate to the population served.

Kauai County, smallest in population, includes the islands of Kauai

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and Niihau. A subscription library had been in operation here for some years, which contracted with the County of Kauai to maintain a free county public library. This county library, the Kauai Public Library Association, Ltd., is housed in a beautiful natural rock building given in 1924 as a memorial to a former resident. The 22,000 books available for circulation showed a usage of 164,600 for last year. Most of the residents on Kauai are connected with the plantations. Niihau is a mere dot, with the raising of sheep and cattle to occupy the 136 residents.

Maui County, next in population, serves the four islands of Maui, Lanai, Molokai and Kahoolawe, through the Maui County Free Library. Headquarters are in a charming building erected in 1929 by public funds. With 51 distributing centers, there is an annual circulation of 258,250. The Island of Maui has several extensive plantations. Lanai is a small island given over to pineapples. Molokai is more primitive, with homesteaders and other Hawaiians who live simply, raising their taro and catching fish. The leper settlement takes up a small portion of the island. Kahoolawe is not inhabited.

Hawaii County, or the island of Hawaii, largest in size of the eight islands, contracted with the Hilo Library to extend its library service over the island. The Hilo Library boasts the only branch library building and the only book wagon in the Territory. One of the most active stations is located in the general store of the largest cattle ranch in the U. S. The annual circulation of the Hilo Library and its 78 agencies is 275,225. The north coast of Hawaii is covered with sugar cane; the east raises coffee. In much of the rest of the island are small communities of fishermen, farmers or stock raisers.

The city and county of Honolulu, or the island of Oahu, draws books from the Library of Hawaii. This is the Territorial Library, as well as the public library of the city of Honolulu, and the county library for rural Oahu through its Stations Department. Every three months, a shipment of books goes to Midway Island, 1000 miles away, when the cable ship takes supplies, mail, etc., to the cable station. There is in addition to the usual departments of a fair-sized library, a Hawaiian

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department, a music department, and the nucleus of a department for the blind. The Hawaiian Historical Society has a room also for its many rare volumes. For the past year, the circulation through the main library and 126 points for distribution was 807,850. Oahu has more than half the population of the Territory. There are several large sugar and pineapple plantations. The 15,500 men at army and navy posts and their families make a large addition to the number of white people in the Territory.

Even though the libraries are so far from book centers, the collections compare favorably with those of similar size on the mainland. Methods and equipment are modern. Many visitors have expressed astonishment at the excellence of book selection and of library service. Sometimes new books are on the shelves on publication date. Communication between headquarters and the stations is easy because of the good roads.

The agencies in the Territory which distribute books outside the main libraries are similar to those in any county library system and include stores, banks, community centers, clubs, hospitals, prisons, army and navy posts, etc. Books are sent to all public and private schools, either in general collections, classroom shipments or books for individual teachers. Because of the large proportion of children of Oriental parentage the reading ability is low. A Saturday in the children's room of any public library shows a throng of black-haired, bare-footed little folk wanting their fairy tales and story books. They do not have books at home, so they are the more eager for the library's treasures.

New legislation is enabling the public schools to build up their own collections from book rental fees. The largest schools have teacher librarians whose duties are entirely in the school libraries. In others, the secretary or some teacher has charge of the library in addition to other work. Most of the rural schools are large, being at the sugar or pineapple plantation centers.

The rural branches or stations are usually located at the villages where the plantation mills and offices and the homes of the office workers are. The laborers, who live in camps at different points on the plantation are, in the main, unable to read English. If they can read

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they often can master only the books borrowed by the children from the school library stations. The second and third generation of young people, however, demand the western and detective story for recreational reading. Emphasis is being placed in the public schools on agriculture in an effort to influence the young people to go back to the plantations. If the movement is successful the character of the rural population, and consequently library service, will be changed. Hawaiian born laborers will then take the place of the constant stream of contract laborers from other countries. Village life centers around the plantation. Almost everyone is connected with the plantation in some capacity. The plantation owns the houses, the store, has its hospital, its social club, its welfare building. The welfare worker carries on an educational and recreational program for the laborers. There may be a library station in the welfare hall for them, and another in the office, social club, or store for the office people and skilled workmen.

Honolulu has in addition to its public library, several other libraries worthy of mention.

The University of Hawaii has a well-equipped building with 75,000 volumes. It is a depository for government document publications. The most unusual part of the collection is the large section of books in the Japanese and Chinese languages.

Punahou School, formerly Oahu College, is a private grade and high school, with a well-selected collection of books.

For the student of Hawaiian or Polynesian history, three libraries are available. The Archives of the Territory contain letters, manuscripts and books, many of which are official papers. In the old "Mission House" is the Carter library with its journals, letters, books relating to early life in the islands and voyages to the Pacific. The Bishop Museum publishes papers on Polynesian subjects and has scientific papers from similar organizations. Their collection of printed material is supplemented with many models of all sorts. The resources of these three are for reference only.

The Institute of Pacific Relations has a small collection of periodicals, pamphlets and books about lands bordering the Pacific.

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Of the Hawaiian industries, there is a technical library at the Hawaiian Sugar Planters' Association, and another at the Associated Hawaiian Pineapple Company. The Hawaii Experiment Station also has material on general and special agricultural subjects.

Each of the eight army and navy posts has its own library. The army also maintains a Department Library at headquarters, on defense, equipment, manoeuvres, etc.

A reference collection of books, magazines and pictures may be consulted at the Honolulu Academy of Arts. The Academy also loans pictures, framed and unframed.

Library workers in the Territory have formed the Hawaii Library Association and usually hold semi-annual meetings. One meeting is held at the time of the county library meeting when the librarians from the outside counties are in attendance.

The employees of a library in the Territory will probably include some library school graduates, some locally trained women, pages and other workers who are Hawaiian, or Hawaiian born Japanese, Chinese and Korean. The "boys" of the Library of Hawaii have their Library Club, and include Japanese, Chinese and Koreans.

With mixed nationalities behind the desk, the patrons in front of the desk show an even greater range. There are probably few libraries anywhere which show a greater variety of readers. The rich and poor Hawaiian, Oriental, Portuguese, Filipino, Porto Rican and *haole*, or white man, all meet in front of the library desk.

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HOLLAND

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ONE of the most curious things about library work in Holland is the fact that public libraries are not called "libraries" at all, but "Public Reading Rooms." The name is a striking instance of the struggle that Holland has had to convince the public of the necessity of erecting libraries with comprehensive collections for the use of the general public.

Formerly there were two main types of libraries, university libraries together with those of other scientific institutions, and popular circulating libraries, which latter were classed as charitable institutions. The public at large belonged in neither.

Inspired by what was being done in America, about 1876 hopes were awakened of starting a similar movement in Holland, but it proved so difficult to overcome the prevailing order of things that all expectations soon died out. The first serious revival came not until about 1900, when a new wave of American enthusiasm came over the country. Then it was, that a few groups of intellectual citizens decided to form reference collections available to all. There were visions of fine, well-equipped buildings with trained librarians to wait upon a crowd of miscellaneous people; nevertheless, there was a vast gap between anticipation and realization, and soon the awakening came. These ideas could not be made to fit into scientific research systems, which were entirely too exclusive; nor could they have any connection with

Holland

the popular circulating libraries, which were recognized as charitable institutions, and operated at a low standard. Consequently reference libraries were started as separate units, on a weak financial basis, and were obliged to look for cheap quarters with very poor accommodation. When Utrecht opened in 1892, all they could afford was a large reading room in rather inadequate quarters, where the intellectual part of the population could hardly be expected to feel at home. It was supervised by an assistant and soon it turned out that more stress was being laid upon reading accommodations for the working class than upon any quick or thorough reference work.

In general there was a pronounced demand for circulation in these libraries, so part of the accommodation was used as a circulation department, in charge of a trained librarian. Even to-day the most highly qualified librarians attend to the circulation department, while the reference collection is either let alone, or left in charge of a subordinate. To all purposes these reading rooms are nothing more or less than ordinary public libraries, although, for fear of being mistaken for the old type of charitable libraries, they call themselves Public Reading Rooms.

The first trained woman librarian was appointed in Dordrecht, where she soon developed her reading room into a public library of the modern type. At present the great majority of reading rooms are in charge of women.

In 1908 the movement had advanced so far that an association was formed, with the purpose of asking for state aid. This association made the following official statement of the aims and purposes of public reading rooms: "Public reading rooms aim to serve every one without regard to his or her religious or political point of view, or social standing. These institutions should be of a cultural, as well as an instructive, quality."

Notwithstanding this very plain statement of neutrality, libraries have always been handicapped by endless religious and political prejudices, and presently these became the bone of contention of all the foremost parties. As a solution, separate reading rooms are now being

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operated throughout the country, representing the Neutral, the Roman Catholic, and the Orthodox Christian points of view, each serving its own public, and separately subsidized, according to population statistics.

Public reading rooms in Holland are nearly all based on private enterprise with state and municipal aid. In a way, this may account for the inadequate financial conditions, especially as compared with English and American standards.

There are many objections to private enterprise in public affairs; it stands in the way of unification and standardization, but it has a considerable advantage in the greater freedom of initiative enjoyed by individual librarians. Many have had original ideas; others went abroad, especially to England, to get suggestions and to select what could be adapted to their libraries. No two libraries are alike, nor do they emphasize the same points. One small town library started a provincial collection, another specialized in school libraries; many libraries published library periodicals, some gave library lectures, and still others held book exhibits. One opened a children's reading room, one consolidated with a music library, and all have prided themselves on small inventions and devices.

Hilversum was the first community to insist on a building of its own. The library board here was very progressive: they organized, besides an excellent circulation collection, a reference department far superior to any other in the country, and also an art department with a collection of reproductions, from which citizens could borrow for longer or shorter periods for home decoration. An extensive sheaf catalog was prepared.

Although at present most libraries have buildings of their own, very few have been erected for the purpose. The majority are old houses, which have been more or less adequately adapted. This adds to the "homey" atmosphere of the interiors, which also show pronounced feminine influence in decoration. Every library is unique of its type; buildings as well as routine details, all have their strongly individual stamp. Unfortunately, this individual character stands in the way of

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every step toward unity of conception, as well as routine detail. Each library has its own systematic catalog printed in book form and used by the public as a guide. Most libraries have alphabetical author card catalogs, many without regard to standard sizes; only a few have title catalogs, and those for novels only; most of them have systematic subject catalogs, with a great variety of classifications, and in some exceptional cases there is an alphabetical subject catalog. The dictionary catalog is unknown in Dutch libraries.

Most public reading rooms charge a nominal fee to borrowers. The circulation systems are not unified; not even in different branches belonging to the same public library. Branches are found in the large towns, about four or five in each.

Library work with children is still at a primitive stage, with a few very notable exceptions. Most libraries circulate books to children, but very few have children's rooms. In the Hague and in Rotterdam children's reading rooms have been established in charge of children's librarians who devote full time to the work. In the Hague the school collections are made up and distributed as a special function of the children's department.

Separate from the public reading room, but in close cooperation, a children's reading room is being organized in Amsterdam, more or less on the American plan, by a librarian who had her training and experience in the United States.

Our proximity to Germany makes many librarians look for methods and inspiration to that country. Perhaps this German influence may account for a certain paternal attitude towards the public, evidenced by the many closed-shelf systems, with the head librarians, or their best qualified assistants at the lending desk, and by a certain tendency to give catalogs a logical or philosophical basis.

In 1928 a new interest in American methods was awakened by the enthusiastic accounts of one of our librarians who spent a year in the United States to study library work there, at the invitation of the Netherland-American Foundation.

Amsterdam was the first to organize an informational reference de-

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partment, which differs from all others in the country in that it lays stress chiefly on the service. In charge of this service is a specially qualified staff, among whom are the heads of such departments as the economics department, the technical department, the music department and the department for the blind. This is an advance upon the old idea of a reference collection where little or no account was taken of the service.

Another instance of the development of the service idea is found in the university and the special libraries, which are now more and more prepared to meet the general public, either directly, or through the different public reading rooms. The Royal Library of the Hague has established a union catalog, which advances greatly interlibrary-loan possibilities. It is gratifying to say, that, notwithstanding lack of unity and of cooperative routine activities, there is fine cooperation among librarians where interlibrary loans are concerned.

As to official associations, several have been formed. The Central Association, which was mentioned previously, acts as adviser on public reading room matters to the government; it proportions and administers state grants; it supervises all public reading rooms, and sees to it that none but trained assistants are appointed. It has charge of all recognized library training, prescribing courses and issuing certificates and diplomas. The training includes instruction and practical work in libraries assigned to the training of students. After two years of successful training, the candidate is given an assistant's certificate. After another year of instruction, given by specialists in different subjects, a diploma is issued, which entitles the graduate to fill the position of head librarian.

The Roman Catholic libraries, as well as the Orthodox Christian libraries, have each formed separate associations, subject to the same rules as the Central Association.

Federated provincial library work has its own grants under the auspices of the Central Association; and an extensive Travelling Libraries' Association has its own grant proportioned to it by the Central Association. The travelling libraries cover the very small communities

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throughout the country, while the provincial collections are drawn from the city libraries, and cover adjacent communities outside the city limits.

There is a Society of Librarians and Library Assistants, including workers in all the different branches of library activity. This Society, together with the Central Association, issues a Journal which is the official national library publication.

Besides all this, there exists a State Council which covers the whole field of library work, including the University and other special libraries. This body publishes a set of catalog rules and other bibliographical material.

There is no doubt that the library movement has taken a firm hold. Gradually the obstacles, mainly due to its historical background, are being overcome. The people are beginning to demand books and service, a wonderful stimulant for the libraries to keep abreast of the times. In fact, the continued call from the public itself for higher standards constitutes our great hope for the future.

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Further information concerning the public library movement in Holland will be found in a memorial publication by Dr. H. J. Greve, published by the Central Association, now in press.

HUNGARY

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THE public libraries in Hungary originated with club libraries, the first of which, founded in 1827 by Count Stephan Szechenyi, was at the national casino. In the third decade of the nineteenth century there were a few of these club libraries, or reading circles, in the larger cities in connection with the casinos and in rural areas in connection with agricultural clubs.

After the Austrian oppression which followed the War of Liberation in 1848, the movement gained ground in the sixties and seventies. Reading circles of that period, in contrast to the earlier casino libraries, began to serve not only the ruling class, but also other classes of the population. The first of this type was, as far as can be ascertained, the circle founded in 1869 at Hódmezővásárhely.

In 1880 under the direction of General Stephan Türr, a central commission, composed of well-known educational authorities, was created for the foundation and extension of popular libraries, but the work of this active commission had soon to be given up.

Popular libraries, in the strict sense of the word, originated about 1882, when the Ministry for Education by means of circular letters induced individual communities to establish such institutions. These libraries, which served also the lower classes, were generally housed in school buildings or in community houses, and the teacher or com-

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munity employee acted as a volunteer worker. However, in some places, particularly in cities, there were libraries of a better type, in which regular provision for replacement of book stock was made, and a fee was charged for the use of the library.

The first organization to include in its program, and to finance out of its own funds, the establishment of popular libraries in a considerable part of the country was the Transylvania-Hungarian Culture Society, organized in 1885. Other organizations of this type which should be mentioned are the Budapest Library Association, the Hungarian Culture Society in the county of Torontál, the free library at Pecs and the Temesvár-Joseph Citizens Reading Society, which in the pre-war years owned libraries of several thousand volumes. An excellent library, which might be termed a public library in the modern sense of the word, was in the town of Hódmezővásárhely, which in 1911 had nearly 9,000 volumes with a total circulation of 24,000.

In the development of the library movement the national library associations played an important part. In 1895 the National Museum and Library Commission was founded, which was supported by a state subvention. The latter developed a national board, a supervisory office, and the National Association of Museums and Libraries. The National Board was active in every part of the country in establishing popular and traveling libraries. It also developed a plan for standard libraries in boxes, which were later made for shipping traveling libraries of 500 kronen or less in value. From 1897 to 1912 it distributed to 465 clubs, libraries to the value of 449,000 kronen; in 1902 it initiated the distribution of standardized libraries, and founded within twelve years 644 libraries, whose value, including the price of the boxes, was 573,312 kronen.

Financial assistance from individual communities could to a certain extent be secured for these popular libraries. For example, the National Board in 1910 reported on 696 libraries, and of these 48 received such aid from the local districts.

In 1910 the municipality of Budapest, on recommendation of the National Board, decided to establish a metropolitan public library and

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also to erect branches in various parts of the city. After the World War this library became one of our largest popular libraries.

The government supported the movement in other ways also. The Ministry of Agriculture, beginning with 1898, granted to villages libraries of from 100 to 300 volumes. Before the war these had totaled about 3,000, with a half million volumes.

A supplement to the popular libraries were the libraries for the soldiers, and the reading circles for non-commissioned officers, established by the Ministry of National Defense.

In spite of this development, the situation before the World War was such that in the majority of communities there were no free popular libraries, and those which were established were for the most part inadequate, and in need of considerable development.

Dr. Paul Gulyás, in his excellent study on the library situation before the World War, distinguishes between "complete" and "incomplete" popular libraries. The "complete" libraries are those which lend books for home use, and have book stacks, reading rooms, and a lending department. In the more developed libraries there were at least three reading rooms, one for children, the other two for adults, one for reading, the other the newspaper and periodical room. This situation, however, existed only in the larger cities. The "incomplete" libraries are equipped only for lending. Among the latter must be included the traveling libraries. At the outbreak of the World War the number of popular libraries, in the strict sense of the word, was 800. The Peace of Trianon, which gave two-thirds of the country to neighboring nations, decreased the number of libraries by about 60 per cent. Even in the territory which remained, the war and its consequences, especially occupation by foreign troops, ruined a large number of the libraries. During the reorganization of the country the Minister of Education, Count Kunó Klebelsberg, asked the national university libraries to assume general direction. The National Board and the supervisory office of museums and libraries were for financial reasons dissolved.

The following description of the present situation is based on information from Dr. Julius Nevelös of the Ministry of Education.

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The new organization had two fundamental ideas: first, that popular libraries were not especially for the populace, but should satisfy the demands of the intelligent classes; secondly, that they should be adapted, wherever possible, to the needs of the individual community. As a result four types of popular libraries emerged, the large libraries in the cities, medium-sized libraries in the small towns and larger villages, small libraries in the little villages, and the *Tanya* libraries in the *Tanyas* (farmsteads). The large libraries served not only the specialist but the higher cultural levels; the medium-sized libraries laid special emphasis on industrial occupations; the village and *Tanya* libraries of a much simpler type aided specially the agricultural activities of the village and farm population.

The selection of books was developed in the following manner. A commission, whose members were specialists in various fields, determined which books then in print were especially adapted for the purposes of a public library. From this first list the individual libraries made their own selections.

The Minister of Education encouraged the writing of books of the types which were greatly needed by certain large groups of people, but which were non-existent except in literature for the specialist. In this manner the series, *Magyar Népművelés Könyvei* (Books for Hungarian Education), of which twelve titles (sixteen volumes) have appeared, was inaugurated.

Such, briefly summarized, is the history of the public libraries which were established in 1927. One thousand five hundred such institutions were founded, the number of which has risen so that today there are 144 large libraries, 176 medium-sized libraries, 933 small libraries, 307 *Tanya* libraries. It should also be mentioned that for the many nationalities in Hungary there are mixed libraries in various languages.

Popular libraries today are as a rule housed in school buildings in charge of individual teachers, but sometimes in a community house, whose head acts as librarian. They are available to every Hungarian citizen.

The number of libraries has increased each year, and the collections

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of those already in existence are periodically augmented. The only limit to this plan is that of finance, but due to the present serious economic depression the development of libraries is greatly retarded.

Two points are kept in mind in regard to the addition of books to the libraries: first, the criteria for non-fiction are different from those for fiction; secondly, the book stock is largely fiction, with a considerable number of titles of a popular scientific character. In whatever fields of knowledge the libraries feel a lack, special effort is made to supply that deficiency.

In addition to the library system already mentioned, there are in Hungary today other libraries which are popular in character: the previously mentioned libraries granted by the Ministry of Agriculture, and the libraries for young men, especially adapted to the needs of youth organizations. Neither of these institutions is, however, in operation at present.

Of the libraries which existed before the World War, the collections of those still in existence after the devastation were revised, and the administration was eventually incorporated in the new organization of popular libraries.

The school libraries, the pedagogical and teachers' libraries, are always connected with the individual school, and can be patronized only by the pupils, teachers and instructors of the individual school, although the popular school libraries also serve the adult public. The books for these libraries are selected by the individual schools. The Ministry of Education has aided the school libraries, by creating a board for the examination of children's literature, which publishes a list of selected titles.

Naturally there are also in several cities of Hungary libraries of great antiquity and value open to the public.

Among the libraries of general interest the following may be mentioned: the Széchenyi Library in the Hungarian National Museum, which receives a copy of every book published in Hungary; the library of the Peter Pázmány University, now over three hundred years old, which because of the size and wealth of its historical collection is really

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a national library, but lately has included books in all fields of knowledge. Similar in size is the library of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences. This and the library of the Central Bureau of Hungarian Statistics together form very complete collections in the humanities. These two libraries also receive regularly copies of all books published in Hungary. Due to the serious economic situation, however, these institutions are suffering from drastic curtailment of book purchase, especially of foreign books. In spite of the brief time since its establishment, the best organized and administered library is the previously mentioned Public Library of Budapest, which most nearly approximates the idea of a popular library.

Since the popular library and the public library in Hungary cannot be so clearly differentiated, as perhaps in other nations, a better conception of the larger libraries will be gained by the tables which follow and which present the more important statistical data.

The library profession is not an occupation for life in Hungary, for the status of the librarian is not established. Efforts to enforce compulsory training for librarianship have had no permanent success. An association of librarians and library employees has recently been formed, and the program of this organization includes training courses in librarianship.

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Corvina.

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Ungarische bibliographische Rundschau (publication suspended)

Ungarische Bibliographie.

Ungarische Bücherrundschau.

Libraries of 10,000 volumes or more 1930

	Number of Libraries	Number of Employees at end of year	Book Collection at beginning of year	Increase in Book Collec- tion	Number of Visitors	Registration	Circulation
30,000 vols. or more							
—Budapest	31	330	3,522,467	98,554	314,683	78,579	1,157,032
30,000 vols. or more							
—other parts of country	22	74	1,783,497	33,713	62,221	37,195	81,653
10,000-30,000 vols.—							
Budapest	32	81	591,002	11,180	43,964	23,774	138,669
10,000-30,000 vols.—							
other parts of country	37	73	629,238	16,297	56,920	98,559	229,902
	122	558	6,526,204	159,744	477,788	238,107	1,607,256

Largest Libraries of Hungary 1930

	Employees	Book Collection beginning of year	Increase Book Coll	Visitors	Registration	Circulation
Library of the Royal Hungarian Pétér Pázmány-University	30	644,262	6,717	64,759	9,935	21,628
Széchenyi-Library of National Museum	33	627,876	2,868	14,508	6,549	42,071
Library of Hungarian Academy of Sciences	14	415,869	9,894	3,595	2,484	8,847
Budapest Public Library	116	367,142	37,469	142,237	20,749	940,376
Library of the Reform College, Debrecen	4	235,000	3,781	6,619	1,305	10,337
Central Library of St. Benedectine Order, Pannonhalma	3	210,014	4,320	5,741	1,353	5,351
Library of the Royal Hungarian Elisabeth-University, Pécs	14	201,599	3,825	7,196	8,375	13,216
Library of the Royal Hungarian Statistical Central Bureau	9	160,697	4,764	2,383	1,527	4,874
Somogyi-Library, Szeged	11	144,192	2,489	27,438	*	*
Main diocese-Library, Esztergom	2	150,000 #	907	478	304	906

*—no circulation
#—estimated

INDIA

BY NEWTON MOHUN DUTT, F. L. A.,

CURATOR OF STATE LIBRARIES, BARODA

AUTHOR OF

“BARODA AND ITS LIBRARIES”

THE modern popular library movement in India dates from 1910, when H. H. the Maharaja Gaekwar of Baroda engaged the services of the late William A. Borden, an American library expert, to organise a State library department in his Raj. During his three years' tenure of office, Mr. Borden conducted a library training class, established the Central Library in the capital city, and planned a network of free public state-aided libraries throughout the State. He was succeeded by the late J. S. Kudalkar, M.A., LL.B., on whose premature death in 1921 the present Curator, Newton M. Dutt, was appointed.

The Central Library comprises not only the usual newspaper reading room and free and open access lending and reference libraries, but also a ladies' library and reading room, a children's playroom, library and reading room, a bindery and a travelling library section. The stock, July 31, 1931, amounted to 98,586 volumes and the circulation to 119,858 volumes. This is exclusive of the travelling library section, which circulates books mainly in the districts, and the stock and circulation of which are 20,228 and 15,262, respectively.

An interesting innovation for India is a stack room attached to the Central Library, the dimensions of which are $34\frac{1}{2} \times 85$ ft. It is fitted with adjustable steel shelving supplied by the Sneed Company of the United States, and the glass flooring has been supplied for the

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three upper tiers. The stack room will accommodate about 125,000 volumes.

Two activities started by the Central Library, i.e., the Gackwar's Oriental Series for publishing rare and valuable oriental manuscripts, and the visual instruction section for giving cinematograph and magic lantern lectures in the districts, have lately been transferred. The former is now being published by the Oriental Institute of Baroda, while the latter is in charge of the Sanitary Commissioner in connection with a village uplift campaign which that officer is carrying on.

Not the least important function of the Library Department is the subsidizing and control of free libraries in the towns and villages of the Raj. These now amount to 773, apart from 210 newspaper reading rooms. Their aggregate stock and circulation are 573,170 and 402,286 respectively. The upkeep of the institutions is borne in equal quotas by the Government, the local boards and the people themselves. Ninety-eight new libraries will be added during the current year. One hundred and fourteen libraries have erected their own buildings.

The Maharaja, who is the pioneer in India of free and compulsory education, started his rural library scheme primarily with a view to preventing relapse into illiteracy of the children of the State after leaving school. The statesmanship and foresight of this enlightened ruler has been fully justified; it has been proved that such relapse is quite negligible in places provided with free libraries. The department has therefore been directed to endeavour to establish a library in every village which has an elementary school. This means the establishment of some 400 more libraries, and it is hoped that the programme will be completed within the next five years.

The school teachers and educational inspectors have proved themselves active workers for the library cause, and they are receiving instructions in the management and control of village libraries.

A State Library Association, with subsidiary *taluka* or county organizations, has been working since 1925 and has held several conferences and exhibitions during the past seven years. The most notable of these was held in Amreli in 1930 and was presided over by Sir

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Prabhashanker Pattani, President of the Board of Administration of Bhavnagar, who was supported by educational officers sent by many of the leading Kathiawar states. This meeting gave a strong impetus to the library movement in Kathiawar, and such states as Bhavnagar, Porbandar, Morvi and Dhrangadhra are interesting themselves in the provision of popular libraries. The Maharaja of Bhavnagar, on his accession in 1931, gave Rs. 20,000 to improve the Barton Library, Bhavnagar, which is presided over by a young man trained in Baroda. Rs. 5,000 were also donated for providing library facilities in villages. The State Montessori School of Bhavnagar is publishing a series of books for children in simple and easy Gujarati.

In 1925 the Library Cooperative Supply Society of Baroda came into existence. It publishes *Pustakalaya*, a Gujarati library monthly, and supplies libraries within and without the State with books, periodicals and furniture on favourable terms.

Baroda has done a good deal of propaganda work in India. Its *Library Miscellany* (1911-19), an illustrated journal in English, Marathi and Gujarati, rendered yeoman's service in the library cause. Baroda has sent out exhibits to various towns where exhibitions and educational conferences have been held, and even to the British Empire Exhibition at Wembley in 1924 and the World Conference of Librarians held in Rome in 1929.

The library activities of Baroda have not failed of effect in the adjacent area of British Gujarat. Useful work is being carried on by the Gujarat Vernacular Society, Ahmedabad and the Charotar Education Society of Anand. Private philanthropy, too, has not been wanting. Amongst the most generous patrons of the library cause are Sir Purushottam Thakurdas, Surat, Sheth Nanji Kalidas, Jamnagar and Sheth Ramji Hansraj, Amreli. The Baroda Library Association and the Gujarat Vernacular Society planned to hold a Gujarat Library Conference in Ahmedabad but the matter has had to be postponed because the President elect, Sir Manubhai N. Mehta, Dewan of Bikaner, formerly Dewan of Baroda, is at present pre-occupied with the affairs of his State and with Indian constitutional reforms. Moreover many of

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the social service workers who would be expected to cooperate in this work are engrossed in political matters. Indeed, some of them are in jail.

Let us now see what progress has been made in other parts of India as regards the provision of libraries. The Andhradesha Library Association was founded in 1926 to organise rural libraries amongst the Telugu-speaking people of Northern Madras and published a Telugu quarterly, *Granthalaya Sarvasvam*, for a few years. In 1919 it initiated the All-India Library Association, the first president of which was Mr. Kudalkar of Baroda. Conferences were held in Madras (twice), Coconada, Belgaum, Cawnpore, Calcutta and Lahore. A library journal was also published but is now discontinued. The efforts of the Andhras afterwards were diverted into political channels and both the Andhra and All-India Associations have ceased to function. However, library work in Southern India has been carried on most successfully by the Madras Library Association, founded in 1928. Under its most enthusiastic secretary, S. R. Ranganathan, M.A., L.T., F.L.A., librarian of the Madras University, it has organised country libraries and induced the Madras University to establish a library faculty and give training in librarianship. Under the auspices of the Association excellent library text books are being published, such as the *Five laws of library science* (1931) and the *Library movement* (1929). This latter consists of a symposium of 52 articles in English and 40 articles in the four principal Southern vernaculars. The contributors included Lord Goschen, Dr. Rabindranath Tagore, the Rt. Hon. V. S. Shri-Srinivasa Sastri, P. C., and Sir P. S. Sivaswamy Ayyar.

The Madras Government is one of the few British administrations which have given grants to rural libraries.

Effective library work is being done by the Bengal Library Association which came into existence in 1925. It has founded country libraries, and induced the Calcutta Corporation to give grants to libraries in the city. It has held three conferences, the last of which, held in 1931, was presided over by Newton M. Dutt, of Baroda. During his visit to Calcutta on that occasion Mr. Dutt gave an address to the Calcutta

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University, in the course of which he urged the Vice Chancellor, Sir H. Suhrawardy, who presided, to arrange for library training in the University. He also gave numerous addresses in the city and in Hooghly and Bansbaria. This campaign was started to further a library bill which had been introduced into the Bengal Legislature.

The Punjab University was the first Indian university to establish a library faculty. Mr. A. D. Dickinson, an American librarian, was brought over to reorganise the university library and to inaugurate the library school which is still functioning. In this school many librarians from Northern India have received training. His *Punjab library primer* is the most useful elementary text book for Indian library aspirants.

It is to a great extent owing to this library school that the Dewey Decimal System of classification is growing to be popular in India; for the study of the system formed a necessary part of the curriculum in the school and its graduates are found in charge of many educational and public libraries in India. A Punjab Library Association came into existence in 1929 and is publishing *The Modern Librarian*, a quarterly, the only English library journal at present functioning in India. At the second meeting of this Association held in 1932, Dr. Hafiz-ul-Rahman, an enthusiastic and discerning bibliophile, declared his willingness to hand over to the Association his collection of 40,000 works in Persian, Arabic and Sanskrit, 8,000 of which are rare manuscripts. There are 1600 village libraries in the Punjab attached to the upper and lower middle schools. They are intended not only for the scholars but also for all the villagers. The school teachers who are given allowances for working as librarians are expected to give popular lectures and talks and to assist borrowers in the use and selection of books. The libraries are financed by local boards with the assistance of government grants. A desire is being expressed for the extension of the system to high schools and colleges in the province.

The governments of the United Provinces and Burmah have been very successful in circulating books in villages through travelling libraries.

In Southern India two associations are functioning, the Maharastra

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Library Association, of Poona, and the All Kerala Library Association, Cochin. The latter was founded in 1931. It publishes a vernacular quarterly and its work covers the States of Travancore and Cochin and adjacent British territory.

A noteworthy event in 1930 was the First All-Asia Educational Conference organised under distinguished auspices by the All-India Conference of Teachers. No less than 5000 delegates attended the sessions which were held in Benares. One of the 14 sections was devoted to library service, the president of which was Newton M. Dutt, while R. S. Ranganathan acted as secretary. No less than 56 papers were received for this section, 22 of which came from abroad. The most important duty of the section was the drafting of a model library bill empowering local boards and governments to establish and finance local libraries. This bill will be introduced into local legislatures as opportunity occurs and it is hoped will in due course become law and thus eventually result in efficient free public libraries in all parts of India.

From this brief survey of libraries in India it will be seen that some progress has been made during the past two decades. Further advance is much impeded by the poverty of the people and the terrible handicap of illiteracy of the masses. When the mass of the town dwellers were enfranchised in England, Robert Lowe declared "We must now educate our masters" and accordingly the Education Bill of 1870 was introduced and passed. Now that India is promised a new constitution in the very near future, one of the first tasks of its new rulers will be the devising of ways and means for free and compulsory education throughout India.

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IMPORTANT LIBRARIES IN INDIA

	Volumes
Imperial Library, Calcutta	285,000
Punjab Public Library, Lahore	151,000
Central Library, Baroda, including Travelling Library Branch	119,814
Oriental Institute, Baroda (formerly Sanskrit Section, Central Library) 13,724 Mss. and 8,198 books	21,922
Royal Asiatic Society, Bombay. over	100,000
Royal Asiatic Society, Madras	80,000
Punjab University, Lahore	75,000
University Library, Allahabad	75,000
University Library, Madras	66,000
Hindu University, Benares	60,000
Dacca University	60,000
Shantiniketan (Tagore's International University, Bolpur)	55,000
Bombay University	50,000
J. N. Petit's Institute, Bombay	50,000
Presidency College, Calcutta	48,000
Fergusson College, Poona	46,000
Government Oriental Manuscript Library, Madras	45,000

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Calcutta University	44,000
People's Free Library with N. M. Wadia Library, Bombay	44,000
Dr. Hafiz-ul-Rahman's Library of Persian, Arabic and Sanskrit books and mss. (40,000 vols.) offered to Punjab Library Association, Lahore	
Theosophical Society, Adyar, Madras	38,000
Connemara Public Library, Madras	36,000
Public Library, Allahabad	36,000
Asiatic Society of Bengal, Calcutta	30,000
Mahara Sarfojt's Saraswati Mahal Tanjore. 25,000 mss. 5,000 books	30,000
Aunamalai University, Chidambaram, Madras Presidency	30,000

IRELAND

I. IRISH FREE STATE

BY ROISIN WALSH,

CHIEF LIBRARIAN, PUBLIC LIBRARY, DUBLIN

THE Irish Free State is not much more than a decade old, but the story of Irish libraries north and south goes back nearly fifteen hundred years.

In the Annals of Tighernach the first reference to a library proper occurs under the year 1020 A.D. when the great school at Armagh was burned down, with the exception of the library and the books of the Abbots.

In the middle ages Ireland was the home of learning in Western Europe. The book treasures of Gaelic Ireland that have survived centuries of warfare are preserved in the libraries in Dublin. These libraries with their treasures are the background and inspiration of the popular library movement in Ireland. The learning of ancient Ireland was in Latin and Irish (*An Ghaedhealg*). The language of modern Ireland is English, but Irish is not dead, and colossal efforts are being made by the government to restore it and make the people bilingual. An interesting problem awaits librarians when the output of books in Irish becomes so great as to make the libraries bilingual too.

In addition to these larger libraries, with their treasures of old manuscripts, incunabula, and rare books and pamphlets, there are several smaller collections of great historical and bibliographical interest.

While many libraries are public in the sense that anyone may, after complying with certain formalities, become a reader, they are not

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popular institutions. The popular library in Ireland as elsewhere grew out of the demand of the common people for the sort of institution that they might use freely and without undue restriction for their own enlightenment. The first public champion of libraries for the people was Thomas Davis (1814-1845), a graduate of Trinity College, a leader of the Young Ireland movement and co-founder with Charles Gavan Duffy and John Blake Dillon of the newspaper called the *Nation*. The reformers believed that the country would be regenerated by good schools, but above all through the wider and more liberal agency of libraries. Davis wrote, "Beside a library, how poor are all the other greatest deeds of man." He appealed, in the *Nation*, to the people, and more especially to the Repeal Associations then springing up everywhere in Ireland, to establish reading rooms and libraries. He was very hopeful. He wrote, "We shall feel unspeakable sorrow if, from the negligence of the committee or the dulness or want of spirit in our country towns, this great opportunity pass away."

Unfortunately, the opportunity passed. Davis died in 1845. Many of his friends were exiled, and nearly sixty years were to pass before legislation made it possible for the rural districts to have libraries.

In the meantime the awakening of the people in England resulted in the first Public Library Act in 1850. This was followed by the first act for Ireland, the Public Libraries (Ireland) Act, 1855, which gave to incorporated boroughs and towns the power to establish libraries. It specified the method of adopting the act, of raising the library rate (fixed at one penny) and of keeping library accounts. It provided for the purchase or renting of land or suitable buildings, the erection and equipment of buildings for library purposes and the administration and management of a library.

This formed the basis of all later legislation. The Public Libraries (Ireland) Amendment Act, 1877, dealt with the constitution of library committees and gave borrowing powers to the library authorities.

The Young Ireland League early in the nineties was responsible for the promotion of a bill which with some modifications was embodied in the Public Libraries Act of 1894, which extended the powers of the

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principal act to urban districts, gave powers to voters to compel the adoption of the act, and to neighbouring authorities to combine for library purposes. The bill as originally drafted provided for the extension of powers to rural districts but this was omitted in the final draft. This omission was made good in the Public Libraries Act of 1902. Furthermore, it authorised the library authority to make agreements with school managers for the use of the school as a library, and to make grants from its technical education funds towards library purposes. It also made the Library Offences Act of 1898 applicable to Ireland. The rate limitation of one penny in the pound was removed in 1920, and the maximum raised to threepence, with the further provision that a county borough may in certain circumstances and with the consent of the Local Government Department levy up to sixpence in the pound.

Since the Irish Free State was established there have been no public library acts, but certain very important clauses concerning libraries were inserted in the Irish Free State Local Government Act of 1925.

By this act rural district councils were abolished except in the case of County Dublin. Power was given to county councils to become the library authority for the whole or any part of the county, and to take over the library powers from any urban district which agrees to relinquish its powers. The act empowered the library authority to pay for lectures and exhibitions out of the library rate, and gave the Minister for Local Government power to dissolve a local authority. The Irish Free State legislation with regard to lectures and exhibitions is in advance of Great Britain, and the powers given under this head have been availed of with great success in several towns and counties.

On the whole, however, the people were apathetic, and when the local authorities were sufficiently interested to establish libraries, the income derived from the penny rate was too small to maintain them efficiently. The City of Cork adopted the act in 1855, the year in which it was passed, but did not levy a rate until 1892. Dundalk adopted the act in 1856, and was the first to apply a municipal library rate by establishing a library and reading room in 1858. Ennis adopted the

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act in 1860, but did not establish a library. No other town adopted the act till the eighties, when libraries were opened in Sligo (1880), Dun Laoghaire (1884), Rathmines (1884), Limerick (1889) and Waterford (1894). During the next twenty years, under the stimulating influence of Carnegie grants for buildings, practically every town in Ireland, with the notable exception of Galway City, adopted the acts and established libraries.

In 1877 an effort was made to establish a public library in Dublin, but it was not until 1884 that the corporation appointed a committee and opened the first libraries in Capel Street and Thomas Street. The delay was probably due to the fact that in 1877 the National Library was founded, so that it was probably felt that Dublin required no further library facilities. However, by 1884 interest in public libraries had revived. The Library Association held its annual conference in Dublin in October of that year, and its members were present at the opening of the two libraries, housed in Georgian dwellings adapted to library purposes. The public soon demanded further library facilities for other parts of the city. In 1903 Andrew Carnegie had offered a grant of £28,000 for a Central Library, but the money was spent on district libraries, with Mr. Carnegie's approval. Unfortunately, owing probably to misunderstandings following the alterations of plans, a sum of only £16,000 was received by the corporation. Dublin is still without its central library. The system of independent libraries described above continued until the passing of the Local Government (Dublin) Act of 1930, which brought the townships of Rathmines and Pembroke with their libraries into the city. In 1925 the Carnegie Trustees gave the city a grant of £7,500 for book purchase, and they urged the necessity for centralization. Following the passage of the 1930 act, a Chief Librarian was appointed at the end of 1931. The problem in Dublin is to bring seven independent libraries into a single system, and this work has been begun. Plans are in preparation for the building of a chain of small libraries in the suburbs, and it is hoped to have at least five of these opened by the end of 1937.

The Dublin libraries are doing excellent work, and are administered

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according to the most modern methods. They were among the first libraries in these countries to adopt open access. There are more than 150,000 books, and the annual issues are well over a million.

There are children's departments in five of the libraries and the remaining two have children's sections. In 1932-33 over one hundred lectures for children were given, both in English and in Irish.

In Ireland as elsewhere it is not possible to discuss the growth of libraries without reference to the benefactions of Andrew Carnegie. Between 1900 and 1913 Mr. Carnegie had contributed approximately £150,000 to libraries in Ireland. After the formation of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust in 1913, the trustees decided to spend less money on buildings and more on books.

With the aid of the trustees, libraries were established in the counties. The 1925 act gave county councils the necessary powers, and now twenty-two of the twenty-six counties in the Irish Free State have library schemes. It is not an exaggeration to say that no public scheme has ever been as popular as the county library. Many of the counties have book vans, all of them send supplies of books regularly to village centres and schools in rural parts, and several organise lectures. County Dublin has a chain of fully-equipped library buildings of which thirteen were built with grants given by Mr. Carnegie. In other counties the scheme is administered largely through the schools, but in villages and towns there is usually a properly equipped centre with a part-time custodian to look after the books, assisted by voluntary helpers.

The first library association in Ireland, *Cumann na Leabharlann*, was founded in 1904 by a small group of enthusiastic public men, librarians, bibliographers and others. It issued a bilingual journal called *An Leabharlann* at irregular intervals between 1905 and 1909, and was responsible for increased activity in the movement for rural libraries. The journal is still a very valuable source of information for Irish librarians.

Most Irish librarians are members and several are fellows of the Library Association (England). For many years they and members of their committees have attended the conferences. But it was felt that

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Irish librarians ought to have facilities at home for professional organisation and for training in librarianship. The Library Association of Ireland, *Cumann Leabharlann na hÉireann*, was founded in 1928, and a school of librarianship was established in University College, Dublin. Courses are provided in Bibliography and Book selection, Classification, Cataloguing and Indexing, Library Organisation and Library Law. A diploma is granted on the results of an examination held once a year. University graduates may complete the course in one year, and undergraduates in two years. There are special concessions for library assistants, and they may, with the approval of the Academic Council, avail themselves of the two years' course.

The Library Association of Ireland is modelled on the American Library Association. It is governed by a Council and Executive Board. It publishes the quarterly journal, *An Leabharlann*, mentioned above.

A Conference of Irish librarians was held in Dublin in 1923 under the auspices of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust acting through its Irish Advisory Committee. It brought the question of libraries once more before the public, and prepared the way for the great development of the last ten years.

Another body of enormous importance for Irish librarians is the Bibliographical Society of Ireland, which publishes its proceedings in the *Irish Book-Lover*.

The Carnegie United Kingdom Trust continues to be the rallying point of library activity in Ireland through its friendly encouragement of every new phase of library development. It has a permanent contact through the Irish Central Library for Students, which is the great national lending library, with wide resources in the National Central Library in London and its "outliers" in Ireland as well as in Great Britain. The value of this institution is enormous, especially to small-town libraries and county libraries with limited bookstock and small income, and to students in need of advanced works of reference, everywhere. Through the cooperation of this library steps are being taken to form regional library schemes with a system of exchange of the more expensive books.

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On the whole, the library movement of the Irish Free State is in a very healthy condition. The public is interested, and although it is not a time for launching expensive schemes there is certain to be a steady increase in library facilities to meet the growing demand. The Library Association is collecting material for a survey of Irish libraries, and the reports to date show that library practice is being standardised. Open access and card charging-methods are general. Only one library has the old indicator method, and one has the ledger.

Cataloguing practice in the public libraries is based mainly on the Catalogue Rules compiled by the American and British Library Associations, 1908, and a certain uniformity in method has thus already been achieved.

The card catalogue employing the standard 5" x 3" card is in general use; in a few cases the sheaf form has been adopted to supplement it. The classified catalogue, supplied with the indexes and cross-references, is the style most frequently found in the public libraries.

The Dewey Decimal Classification is, with one or two exceptions, the system in general use; some libraries have found it necessary to modify the tables slightly to meet local requirements.

Staff hours vary from thirty-three to fifty-four hours per week. The hours of the Dublin Corporation, which are 36 per week, may be taken as an average for the whole country.

Not very much has been done towards co-operation with educational bodies. In November, 1930, the Library Association of Ireland organised a conference to discuss adult education and the possibilities of co-operation, but this had no practical results. Collections of books are loaned to technical and vocational classes, teachers are helped by the loan of reference books, and in the rural parts of counties the library centres are usually housed in the schools. But co-operation on a large scale is not possible as long as the libraries are under the control of local bodies functioning under the Department of Local Government and Public Health, while education is centralised in the Department of Education, with no local control.

An important question to be faced in the future will be whether it

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is desirable that libraries should come under the direct control of a state department, with consequent state inspection and perhaps loss of a certain amount of independence.

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II. NORTHERN IRELAND

BY J. B. GOLDSBROUGH,

CHIEF LIBRARIAN, BELFAST

BEFORE the passing of the Public Libraries Act (Ireland 1855), the only Library in Northern Ireland open free to the public was the Armagh Library connected with the diocese of Armagh and founded in 1771; it contains about 30,000 volumes, principally theological and historical. The Diocesan libraries of Derry and Raphoe and Down and Connor were also available for the use of students. The collegiate and other special libraries which existed for the use of the members of those societies might, in exceptional cases, allow a reader in search of special information the use of their libraries.

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The development of the public library movement in Northern Ireland has been extremely slow, for although the first Libraries Act for Ireland was passed in 1855, it was not until 1888 that the first rate-supported public library was opened in Belfast.

The Central Public Library of Belfast was opened in November 1888 with the stock of 14,105 volumes, and issued during the first year 185,147 volumes. Since then five branch libraries have been opened—three of them due to the generosity of Andrew Carnegie—and the total number of volumes in 1931, including reference and lending libraries, was 180,897, while the number of volumes issued was 75,698 for reference and 1,397,669 for home use.

Between 1890 and 1908 seven towns or urban districts adopted the acts, being assisted by the Carnegie building grants, or by gifts and bequests of local friends.

The next important development occurred in 1922, when the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust established in County Antrim, an experimental county library similar to those then being formed in England. The experiment proved successful, and after the passing of the Public Libraries Act (Northern Ireland), in 1924, all the other counties in Northern Ireland, except County Down, namely, Armagh (1927), Londonderry (1925), Fermanagh (1926), and Tyrone (1926), adopted the acts and received Carnegie grants for the purchase of initial stocks of books, except in County Antrim, where the stock of the experimental scheme was handed over to the county council.

In 1927 a conference of library and educational authorities was held in Belfast, under the auspices of the Carnegie Trust, to consider means of co-operation between the public libraries in Northern Ireland. The Belfast Public Library agreed to act as a local supplementary central library, lending non-fiction to the other public libraries at a fee of threepence per volume and postage. To meet the cost, the Trustees made a grant of £5,000, out of which 43 schools in Belfast have been supplied with 5,442 volumes. The issue in 1931 was 29,189 volumes. The number of books lent to county or urban libraries during the year 1931 was 228.

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The interlending of books between county and urban libraries, on payment of the cost of carriage, also has been working in the counties for some time to a limited extent.

The Government of Northern Ireland in 1928 appointed a committee to inquire into the adequacy of library provision in the province, and to consider the best means of extending the same by the establishment of a State library and by co-operation with existing libraries.

In a report issued in 1929, this committee recommended the formation of a state library to be called the Ulster Library which would contain as far as possible all the books dealing with the interests and problems of the province, and which would work in co-operation with the existing libraries. It further recommended the compilation of a general catalogue of all books (except fiction) in the libraries of Northern Ireland. Unfortunately, up to the present the Government has been unable to adopt any of these recommendations.

The first Public Libraries (Ireland) Act was passed in 1855, but applied only to boroughs or urban areas of over 5,000 population; the adoption of the act was by vote at a public meeting held for the purpose, a two-thirds majority of those present being required. The local authority was also empowered to levy a rate not exceeding one penny in the pound.

In the Amending Act (1877) the addition of persons not members of the Council or Board, as members of the Committee of management of a public library, was permitted. The Public Libraries (Ireland) Act of 1894 marked an important stage in the legislative development of the movement, the local authority being empowered to remove or raise the limitation on expenditure imposed by the Act of 1855. The Act also provided that the library rate should not count in computing the total rating powers where limited.

The Acts of 1901 and 1902 further extended the powers of library authorities, notably in empowering them to combine with other governing bodies of libraries, working under educational or charitable trusts, for the interchange and hire of books, and for the use of schools as libraries. Trustees holding land, for public or charitable purposes,

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are empowered to convey amounts not exceeding one acre, by way of gift, or sale, for library purposes, subject to the consent of the Ministry of Finance.

All these enactments refer exclusively to urban areas, which term includes county and municipal boroughs, urban districts and townships under town commissioners. The Act of 1902 extended similar privileges to rural districts, but advantage not being taken of this extension in Northern Ireland, the power ceased on the passing of the Public Libraries Act (Northern Ireland) 1924.

The Public Libraries (Ireland) Act of 1911 gave permission for an extra halfpenny in the pound, to be levied in county boroughs where an art gallery was maintained on the library rate. This was followed in the Act of 1920 by raising the limit of expenditure from one penny to threepence in the pound, and enabled county boroughs to exceed that limit by an amount not exceeding another threepence in the pound, subject to the consent of the Ministry of Home Affairs.

All the foregoing legislation applied to Ireland as a whole; but after the separation of the Free State and Northern Ireland, the Government of the latter passed the Public Libraries Act (Northern Ireland) 1924. By this act, county councils are enabled to adopt the Libraries Acts by resolution, and may apply it to a part of a county only. The adoption of the acts by a county council overrides the adoption, if any, by rural districts, whose powers of adoption are removed, but does not interfere with urban districts and townships within the county.

The administration and management of the libraries is delegated by the councils of the towns and counties to special committees which may and sometimes do include co-opted members appointed for their special knowledge. The committees are responsible for management and organization, for the appointment of officials, maintenance of buildings, etc.

In the Belfast public libraries the lending departments have the "Open-Access" system. Ratepayers are entitled to sign their own borrowers' forms, but persons whose names are not on the register of voters must procure the signature of a ratepayer as guarantor. Each

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borrower is entitled to two tickets, one of which is available only for non-fiction works, and books are lent for 14 days but may be renewed if not in demand.

Printed catalogues were originally available, but during recent years these have been replaced by card catalogues. There is, however, a list printed annually of the books added. Libraries in the smaller towns are usually worked with indicators.

The five county libraries in Northern Ireland are each organized and worked from a central depot in the principal town of the county, from which the books are distributed in boxes, by means of cars or vans to the small towns and villages, where the local centre is generally in the school or public hall, the work being done by voluntary helpers, usually teachers. Some of the smaller urban libraries supplement their own stock of books by borrowing, for a small payment, supplies of books from the county depot, while others are supplied as part of the county organization.

The classification in use in the county libraries, and in those of Belfast and Bangor, is the Dewey system modified to suit local requirements. Other libraries still use the old alphabetical plan.

Special sections of books for children and young people are provided in all the libraries and are extremely well patronized.

There is a local branch of the Library Association of the United Kingdom, with headquarters in Belfast and with about 46 members throughout the province, but no local library publications are issued, reports of meetings, etc., being sent to the *Library Association Record*.

ITALY

BY CARMELA MÖLLICA,

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TRANSLATED BY DR. W. W. BISHOP,

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THE idea of libraries "for all" has no venerable tradition in any nation; much less could it have such a tradition in Italy and in other Latin countries in which "culture" has always meant culture for a favored few. Not only the masses of the population, but also other classes of citizens, were excluded in fact, if not in theory, from the active use of Italy's many, old, and extremely rich libraries. And so when the modern and fruitful idea of bringing all ranks of the people into touch with books began to make progress, it found in Italy an enviable variety of libraries and in them a service already established and free to whosoever desired to use it. These libraries were public—yes—but not made for every "public." They were owned and operated either by the towns, which were of very ancient foundation, or by the State itself, which had inherited them from the group of small Italian states when it emerged free and united [in 1870]. There was, then, a fertile and well-tilled soil in which to sow the seed of a new plant.

Both for the State and for the communes, that is, for the taxpayers, the expense necessary to maintain the older libraries was a huge burden, possibly altogether disproportionate to their income. Not only was it impossible to reduce this burden; it was absolutely necessary to increase it by reason of the rapid progress of education in new-born Italy. It was not, therefore, possible to think of a new system of taxes,

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even on a small scale, for the creation of other libraries and for their development—such a system, that is to say, as that which determined the growth of libraries in England and in America.

Therefore, into the founding of popular libraries, which was none the less undertaken, there entered many organizations apart and separate from the communes and from the State. But this took place only in those cities in which the cultural level of the masses was unusually high, chiefly in northern Italy. It was thus that there arose alongside of the large and venerated libraries of Italy lesser institutions as well. They were, however, very small and were styled “popular” libraries.

Thus popular libraries in Italy had modest beginnings. At first they seemed destined to a rather rapid growth; then they became stationary; and, later, save in a few more favored and more cultured centers, they either disappeared or vegetated obscurely, reducing almost to nothing their hoped-for usefulness. However remote the first incidents in their history, it is not hardy to distinguish certain phases. The first of these dates from the era of liberal efforts for popular education.

Italy, at the time of the formation of the kingdom, had a huge number of illiterates, reaching the figure of sixteen millions. The evil of illiteracy seemed almost too great to be rooted out. Even where this evil was less serious, the people, after having learned in school the rudiments of reading and writing, held themselves aloof from any other institution intended to diffuse knowledge and culture. Thus entire provinces about 1850 had not a single peasant able to write, and, further, several years after 1860 Basilicata could not boast a single one able to read. Emilia, which in proportion to its population has today in Reggio the city best furnished with circulating libraries, had, in 1863, while possessing the greatest number of books among all the provinces of the realm, but 83,990 persons able to read. Tuscany, with a sixth of the books of the land, counted but 67,245 who could read.

The first popular library was founded at Prato in 1861. Begun with a few centesimi and a single book, and looked on up to about 1866 with that distrust which greets all new things, it had nevertheless in the course of a few years a notable growth through private gifts and

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support from governmental sources. In 1867 it was granted a prize at the Paris Exposition, and at the opening of its eighth year it had 200 members, 4,000 volumes, and a yearly income of 1,200 lire. The papers, memoirs, reports and catalogs which it published aroused a notable interest. Very soon similar institutions arose in thirty-two cities. In Milan in 1865 there was organized a library corporation which, particularly through the efforts of the eminent statesman, Luigi Luzzatti, and after taking counsel also with Macé, the founder of peoples' libraries in Alsace, opened its library in 1867. This library could not publish its catalog until 1878; however, in this decade it saw its number of readers doubled, rising from 10,255 to 20,979. In 1880 it had about 12,042 volumes, for the most part bound, classified and numbered.

Companies and societies of this character were formed elsewhere also. The Agrarian Commission of Voghera particularly deserves mention. This Commission founded libraries for farmers in seventy-three communes. As a rule these libraries were not wholly free to readers without any payment. The idea of absolutely free libraries was adopted by the Lombard Society and by that of Venice, which went so far as to promise prizes. Certain associations tried as far as they could to extend their activity over an entire province. Others ardently desired to make plain to the entire country the need for books. It should not be forgotten that up to 1869 a project for a great national society had been twice warmly proposed, and that in 1870 there was established at Florence a committee for the encouragement of popular libraries which proposed for itself, however, a merely advisory activity. The times were not yet ripe. Despite the fact that several provincial councils discussed grants and support, and that—most important of all—after 1866 the Ministry by subsidizing the Society at Prato established the principle of the "worth of the mission of the book," and did not fail in succeeding years to give aid and counsel, nevertheless the spread of popular libraries was the work of private initiative. The government approved and encouraged these libraries; it deliberated many times the question of subsidies to be granted, but it did not directly promote them, nor did it think fit to take the initiative by determining the

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working conditions of the new institutions or by defining their scope. Popular libraries, which numbered about 140 in 1868, reached 250 by the end of 1869. One hundred and fifty had their own quarters and together they owned 89,000 volumes of which 65,000 were gifts. In 1869 they lent 56,000 volumes. Their annual income from private subscription was about 31,000 lire; the towns had granted 18,000 lire and the government 28,000 lire.

But after a decade, in the 8,300 communes of the kingdom there were found no more than 500 libraries, concerning which there were no official statistics published, until in 1890 the Ministry of Agriculture, Industry and Commerce began to print them. The figures for the year 1893 were:

Libraries of societies or of private bodies	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Northern Italy } 244 \\ \text{Central Italy } 176 \\ \text{Southern Italy } 122 \end{array} \right\} \dots$	542
Libraries maintained by towns		419
Libraries of primary and secondary schools		311
Total		<hr/> 1272

The true popular libraries were then a little more than half a thousand, and only perhaps considering all these classes together could one in 1882 speak of a thousand. A desire began to arise for regimental libraries, destined to be born a little later, and there were great lamentations that elementary school libraries were so few.

Already popular libraries could not be considered as a single type; rather, a great variety of types was their dominant characteristic. And this fact also became plain, that where there already was a public library, the circulating library had been able to maintain its purely popular character; while where it was formed alone (and this was most often the case), in order to be of service in the education of the middle class, it had abandoned its first character, giving rise to a mixed type.

It should not be forgotten that the problem of popular education, by reading, by libraries and by lectures, soon was made almost a party issue. Propaganda for popular libraries in the northern and central provinces became a means for the spread of subversive and socialistic

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ideas. Elsewhere, in those regions in which a well-diffused liberal consciousness resisted successfully, as in southern Italy and in the islands, institutions for popular education remained almost entirely a dead letter. Eventually the indifference of the people, which in general was but little shaken, or even not at all moved, ruined these hopeful beginnings. The very upspringing here and there of libraries in schools, so advantageous to the schools themselves, could only serve to hamper and limit the idea of libraries for the people. Thus an official report (that of Corradini) in 1908 reveals unmistakably the true state of things. There were counted 415 libraries in 319 communes, 133 created by municipalities, 113 by private individuals, 8 by factories, 80 by workmen's societies, 15 by ministers of religion. For the others there were no accurate figures, and even if it is possible that besides these 415 there were some few which were overlooked, a halt, even a setback, was undeniable. Those open to the public were 225; 358 allowed borrowing, most of them without payment; 358 had a catalog; 226 enjoyed support in the form of money, 161 in books; only 86 kept accounts. Together they owned 752,050 volumes. Despite that steady progress which in other matters so marked our country, one cannot help being struck by the lamentable lack of libraries created by industrialists, as well as by the want of libraries for farmers.

But if the state of popular libraries left much to be desired in 1907, a second phase of their history had already begun when (about 1900) certain very active institutions were flourishing:

1. The Guild (*Consorzio*) of Popular Libraries of Milan,
2. The Association of Popular Libraries of Bologna,
3. The Guild of Popular Libraries of Turin,
4. The Guild of Popular Libraries of Genoa.

These were the solid foundations on which future efforts could be builded.

The impulse given in Milan by the old *Società Promotrice* little by little grew less; while the library founded in 1867 had come to own 30,000 to 40,000 volumes, it still remained most backward as regards technical and scientific progress, so that it was reduced to little more

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than a mass of books left a prey to worms. The Society besides had never (or almost never) succeeded in making any progress outside of Milan, and would have died of inanition, had it not been changed into the "Guild" (*Consorzio*). This, formed in 1903 through the efforts of the *Società Umanitaria "Loria,"* united the forces of the Chamber of Labor, of the People's University, of the *Società Promotrice*, of the Society for Popular Culture, and finally of the city. The library already in existence was left open, and utilizing about three-fifths of its stock of 40,000 volumes, with new purchases and gifts of 3,754 volumes, four other branches were opened, to one of which was intrusted the functions of administration and coordination. In its first year (from May until December) it circulated 21,398 volumes to 4,950 readers (one for every four books) and after its second year it opened a sixth branch. It began to publish a bulletin and founded libraries in the province, of which there were 13 in 1907. This library concerned itself almost wholly with workingmen, coming more and more as time went on under the leadership of the Chamber of Labor. The same thing can be said of the Guild of Popular Libraries of Genoa, founded in June, 1900. On the other hand the Association of Bologna devoted itself chiefly to the schools. The Guild of Turin, moreover, founded in November, 1906, established traveling libraries for the schools of the province, and developed a work similar in some ways to that of the Society Dante Alighieri, which was attempting, under the leadership of Boselli, the formation of libraries and of reading clubs of a national liberal character, similar to associations for mutual aid. Side by side with these undertakings arose the National Institute for Libraries in the Army and the Navy and ultimately in the Air-forces.

In these active institutions there was an entire lack of that coordination and unity of type which would have assured their continued existence; in fact, each of them extolled its own ideas, frequently in direct conflict with others. Their immediate common aims were:

1. To furnish at the best price books conforming to certain ideas;
2. To promote the foundation of libraries in support of a given point of view;

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3. To favor indirectly the publishers who supported this point of view.

The principal societies, begun originally with the purpose of creating libraries for the people, and still today supporting such libraries, are:

1. The Italian Federation of Popular Libraries of Milan,
2. The Federation of Circulating Libraries of Milan,
3. The National Group of Libraries of Turin,
4. The Religious Society of St. Paul of Alba,
5. The National Organization for Popular and School Libraries of Rome,
6. The Directing Committee (Gruppo d'Azione) for People's Schools of Milan,
7. The National Association for the Interests of the South in Rome,
8. The Sardinian Federation for Popular Libraries,
9. The Guild (Consortio) of Emigration and Labor of Genoa.

While these societies in Bologna, Turin and Alba have had an unbroken life, the Federation of Popular Libraries of Milan has lost, with the advent of Fascism, its original purpose, which was formerly essentially socialistic. This Federation has been changed into a publishing house with a (legal) monopoly, assuming the name of Italian Federation of Popular Libraries and National Book Alliance.

The third phase in the life of popular libraries began definitely with the law of September 2, 1917—a decree in some ways comparable to that which made schools obligatory. This law made it the duty of each commune to establish and maintain a popular library separate from that of the school, but entrusted the care of these libraries to the teachers. This law established a principle, gave an ideal, but yet did not define the means of reaching that ideal, nor did it solve the problem in all its various aspects. Consequently, especially in view of the fact that in 1917 the number of places not possessing libraries was very large, libraries are still, even today, wanting in many small communes. In many others they are scarcely alive, and are so varied in type and function that one cannot easily classify them. Yet their rapid growth, founded this time on a solid legal basis, and the wide-spread belief that they are not compelled to develop on any fixed pattern but may have their own particular character, while still following the guidance

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of a central administration, have already aroused great hopes for their success.

The popular libraries of today may be grouped according to the organizations supporting them. Thus we have:

1. Communal popular libraries (i.e., supported by the commune),
2. Libraries of the Fascist party,
3. Libraries of the National Balilla movement,
4. Libraries of the National After-work (Dopolavoro) movement [Adult Education],
5. Libraries of the National Combatants movement,
6. School and public libraries,
7. Libraries of clubs and associations,
8. Libraries of religious associations,
9. Regimental libraries (for soldiers),
10. Private libraries.

It should not be forgotten that some organizations have created different sorts of libraries. Thus the National Adult Education (Dopolavoro) Movement has (a) Members' libraries, reserved for the members of a given Dopolavoro; (b) Popular libraries with borrowing for home use and reading rooms; (c) circulating libraries; (d) special libraries (farmers', technical, theatrical, etc.). Nor should traveling libraries¹ be passed without a word. These were only projected when in 1902 the Minister of Agriculture, Industry and Commerce proposed them. Only in very recent times have they been brought into actual existence and given satisfactory results. The latest official statistics—those for 1926-27—show that the popular libraries have been separated from the school libraries. These latter amounted to 15,000 in 7,424 communes (out of 9,156), with 2,656,000 volumes. The popular libraries reached the figure 3,654, which might rise perhaps as high as 5,000 if many institutions had not been passed by without record.

When all the popular libraries shall have taken on a distinct character which shall set them off sharply from both upper and middle class culture, and when the great number which still are dragging out

¹ The Italian phrase, *biblioteche someggiate*, means literally "loaded libraries," i.e. loaded on mule or ass for climbing the mountains.—*Translator*.

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an existence, with but a handful of volumes selected at haphazard, shall have risen to the dignity of people's libraries, the problem will have been happily solved. This is the purpose of a very recent law, born of the conviction that these institutions cannot really flourish and become fruitful until the government itself intervenes, creating for this purpose a directing and coordinating body.

Today, then, after such a long delay, the State is interesting itself heartily in these popular libraries which formerly, for the reasons previously set forth, were the most neglected. A noble rivalry of plans and of efforts renders them one of the most interesting national problems.

To assist and to stimulate action by either the State or local government, or by any other organization which is concerned to extend the beneficent work of public libraries, there was founded in June of 1930 the Italian Library Association (A.I.B.), which accepts as members not only the librarians of Italy, but also others of every calling and profession, friends of books and of culture, of that collective intellectual progress which underlies every national civilization. The Association, presided over ever since its birth by the Honorable Professor Pier Silverio Leicht, formerly Under-Secretary of State for Public Instruction, counts already 400 members and is affiliated with the great International Federation of Library Associations. Each year its members hold a conference (in 1931 at Rome, in 1932 at Modena and at Florence) to discuss the promotion of libraries and to study professional problems of interest not alone to popular libraries or to those appealing to the middle class, but also those which concern the great governmental libraries, in the hope of making them meet more successfully the demands of both Italian and foreign scholars. To these scholars the more public life becomes troubled and distressed, the more inviting is the fruitful quiet offered by the House of Books.

NOTE: For details concerning the life and growth of our libraries, consult the quarterly review entitled *Accademie e Biblioteche d'Italia*, published at Rome since 1927 under the auspices of the Ministry of National Education.

JAPAN

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THE development and general condition of the libraries in Japan were reported by me at the time of the Fiftieth Anniversary Conference of the American Library Association held in Atlantic City and Philadelphia in October, 1926, and this report was printed in the *Papers and Proceedings, Fiftieth Anniversary Conference*, 1926. Consequently I will state here briefly the general development of the library world in Japan since that time only.

According to the statistical report taken in March, 1931, the total number of public libraries in Japan at that time, including Taiwan (Formosa), Chosen (Korea), and Kanto-Shu (Kwantoung Province), was 4,753, of which five were national, 3,309 public, and 1,413 private establishments. The colonial libraries were only 144 in all, and 95 per cent of the total number were in Japan proper. The total number of books in these libraries was 10,630,000 volumes and the aggregate number of readers in one year was 25,660,000.

As compared with the figures presented in my above-mentioned previous report, these new figures show a remarkable growth of our libraries. According to statistics taken in March, 1923, the total number of libraries in our country was 2,438. (In my previous report the colonial libraries were not included, and, therefore, the figure given there was 2,389.)

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Thus we notice that during the short period of only eight years the number of libraries was nearly doubled, while the number of books and readers increased by about 50 per cent.

Such a very rapid development cannot but be a reflection of the increased demand for library facilities upon the part of the general public in modern Japan. We can confirm this belief when we see that 80 per cent of these libraries have been established and maintained by prefectures, towns, and other local public bodies. Besides, we have to notice the fact that there are a large number of libraries which were founded in commemoration of the coronation of the present Emperor.

Most of these libraries are general libraries, or libraries for the public, so to speak; but there are also a number of special libraries with the view of promoting special study and research. Of the latter kind, two libraries of recent establishment are distinguished—the Fujiyama Industrial Library, founded by Mr. Raita Fujiyama, a business man, in 1927, and the Dramatic Library in the Dramatic Museum of Waseda University, which was founded in 1920 by the effort of Dr. Yuzo Tsubouchi, a professor emeritus of that university.

Of late an increasing number of libraries has sought to meet the demands of the modern age by enlarging or reconstructing their buildings, while many prefectural, municipal, and college libraries have built modern styled buildings. Especially, many of those libraries which were destroyed by the great earthquake of 1923 have been beautifully reconstructed. Of these many new buildings, the Tokyo Imperial University Library is the largest and the best. It was donated by John D. Rockefeller, Jr., of the United States, and was completed in December, 1928. It is furnished with the latest library equipment and has an aggregate area of 5,200 *tsubo*.¹

Next to this library the notable new buildings are those of Tokyo municipal libraries at Fukagawa and Surugadai, the Library of the Department of Imperial Household (completed in 1928), prefectural libraries at Yamaguchi (1929), Kagoshima (1927), Nagano (1929), Tottori (1930), and Tenri Library (1930).

¹The *tsubo* is about thirty-six square feet.

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The libraries intended for the use of the public have endeavoured to improve their equipment and facilities for the general reader in and out of the library buildings, have increased their circulation, and by undertaking nation-wide propaganda during Library Week, which is held in November every year under the auspices of the Library Association of Japan, have contributed to the instruction of the great mass of the people. Mention should be made of the recent development in the collection and utilization of materials for the study of special local matters as well as the appearance of numerous new organizations with a view to the development of social education through library activities.

The collection and utilization of materials for the study of local matters have frequently been discussed at national conferences and other meetings of library workers; and many libraries have held exhibitions and provided special rooms for the exhibits of such materials. Thus this particular activity has gradually become so important that its success is considered as a good index of the efficiency of library activities, and the result of the movement is being watched with great interest and expectation.

As for systematic plans for the promotion of social education, besides the old methods of exhibitions, public lectures and moving pictures, now we also circulate travelling libraries, and by giving systematic lecture courses or by organizing reading classes we are endeavouring, in a sincere and persistent way, to guide and instruct the general public, especially the young folks of rural districts who are in unfavorable situations as regards cultural matters, compared with the urban districts.

The Library Association of Japan was incorporated in 1930, and since then it has greatly contributed to social education. In 1931, a new plan was evolved in order to disseminate desirable and commendable books among the general public. This is a sort of book review carefully prepared from the standpoint of social education, and with explanatory notes of all good new publications. This is widely distributed. In the national library convention of 1932, a resolution was passed to the

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effect that the second day of April each year should be observed as a Memorial Day for Libraries, and made an occasion for stimulating our people to devote themselves to the cause of libraries. The motive for fixing this memorial day was that on that particular day, in 1931, Mr. K. Matsumoto, the director of the Imperial Library, was summoned by the Emperor and was asked to give a lecture concerning the work of libraries before His Majesty. In order to commemorate this honour conferred upon the libraries and to inspire all Japanese to strive to fulfill His Majesty's desire for the development of libraries, the library workers of the whole country unanimously took this action upon that occasion.

Besides the Library Association of Japan, there are a number of organizations contributing to the promotion of libraries and their work in our country. The most notable of these organizations are:—

(1) The Association of Main Libraries of the Empire. With the object of promoting local libraries the largest, or the central library, of each prefecture began to aid and guide the minor libraries of its own prefecture, and to encourage the increase of the number of libraries as well as systematic co-operation between them. So at the Conference of Librarians of Local Central Libraries, which was held in 1930 under the auspices of the Imperial Library, the Association of Local Central Libraries, with the Imperial Library as its center of activities, was established; and it was decided that the new Association should study various problems common to a large number of the local central libraries, and should seek to contribute to their healthy development.

(2) Prefectural and regional library organizations. Prefectural library associations have gradually increased in recent years, until there are nearly twenty of them at present, while on the other hand, a number of associations covering areas larger than prefectures have appeared. The largest of this latter kind are the Federation of Libraries of Northern Honshu (main land) and Hokkaido (established in 1928), the Library Association of Taiwan (Formosa) (1927), and the Library Union of Shikoku (1931).

(3) The League of Young Librarians. This body was established in

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1927, with the object of studying and promoting libraries and their work, and publishes the *Toshokan Kenkyu* (*Library Study*), a quarterly, which has rendered good service to the library world of Japan.

Finally, a few words about the commemoration ceremony of Yakatsugu Isonokami. He was a high official in the reign of the Emperor Konin in the Nara period, and is considered to be the originator of libraries in Japan because of the fact that about 775 A.D., he established Untei, Home of Papyrus (a sort of library). In the autumn of 1930, the ceremony of his 1150th anniversary was observed at Tanbaichi, near Nara, by the unveiling of a monument to commemorate his meritorious deed. A large number of notables of the library world of Japan attended this ceremony.

As thus briefly stated, the libraries in Japan have made remarkable progress in recent years. In order to stimulate a still further development, however, the Department of Education is planning a fundamental revision of the library regulations, which is expected to be realized in the near future.

MEXICO

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THE library as an institution for the enlightenment and pleasure of the general public of Mexico first appeared in that country after the Conquest and colonization. Such collections of books as existed prior to this time extended privileges only to ecclesiastics, scholars, and aristocrats, thus naturally discouraging literary zeal among the middle class.

The noteworthy effort of Canon Cayetano D. Torres (1787) in the establishment of a library for the people acclaims him a pioneer. Without precedent he left his own collection of books to the Cathedral of Mexico with the express command that it be placed at the disposal of the public. From this meager beginning, his idea expanded until in 1884 the National Library was established, its volumes for the most part being those of abolished monasteries and the then extinct University of Mexico. It functioned as a reading center for all social classes until 1921 in which year Secretary of Public Education José Vasconcelos had placed under his supervision a Department of Libraries which initiated a movement toward mass education through the medium of the library.

In its early years, the Department was financially able to further its plans, the most important of which was the establishment of libraries in the Federal District and also in various cities of the States. This plan is now being realized in the establishment of new libraries or the

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transformation of special institutions into public libraries for which purpose there are available numerous collections of works belonging to seminaries and other ecclesiastical institutions closed during the recent revolution.

Some thirty libraries of a purely public character now constitute the library system of the Federal District. The Department of Libraries is the central organ of government directly in control of the system. It makes personnel appointments, dictates policies of administration, establishes systems of library economy, and even supervises the technical instruction of the employees. It is also willing to give any possible technical aid to libraries which are not directly under its control.

The Library Department is the only important center for study in the fields of bibliography and library economy. The Dewey decimal system, restricted to a maximum of seven ciphers, modified and enlarged by the International Institute of Bibliography of Brussels, has been approved as the scheme of classification. The dictionary catalog is used, following the rules of the American Library Association and Charles A. Cutter, using as a source of subject headings the list published by the Library of Congress in Washington. All the libraries under the Department are now entirely classified, lacking only revision, and the catalogs will be completed during the year 1933. From duplicates of these individual catalogs will be formed a central catalog for use primarily in answering questions of the public with respect to the books in the various collections.

At present, library service is usually available for reference work within the library itself; only in a few institutions has the service of lending books for home use been established, with the provision, of course, that such borrowers conform to the requirements exacted by the regulations. In special libraries there is an ever-increasing demand by scholars, professional men and general readers for the services offered. In the field of reference, the librarians are becoming experts and it may be said that the public library is primarily a center of study and reference rather than one of mere reading for pleasure.

In addition to the adult collection, the public libraries have recently

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directed marked attention to enlarging their stock with carefully selected children's books. In some of the libraries in Mexico City, there exist special collections designed exclusively for children, and in the others there are juvenile sections consisting of books most popular among youthful readers.

In conjunction with the public library, there has arisen in Mexico an interest among the educational authorities in the development of the rural library. Established in many small communities, it will be of equal interest to the scholar, the general public, and the boys and girls, thus serving alike students and residents.

It has only been since 1932, when library extension work was begun, that thirty groups of readers have been formed from the workers of various business houses. There are available for this work small collections of books of general interest and some which relate to the functions and occupations of the workers who read them. During the present year it is hoped that important conclusions may be drawn from this experiment, so that this form of extension work may be improved upon.

As an important complement to its library work, the Department has undertaken a publicity campaign in order to make the public library-conscious, a campaign which at present, and in fact since 1922, has been aided by the publication of the bibliographical magazine, *El Libro y El Pueblo*, (*The Book and the Town*) which in later years was accompanied by first the *Boletin del Libro y el Pueblo*, and later, by the *Volantes del Libro y el Pueblo*. The first-mentioned magazine has always maintained a high bibliographic character, and is appreciated by scholars, both Mexican and foreign. In its pages have appeared works of distinguished writers of the Spanish language, especially Mexicans, and there are included also notices of new national bibliographies along with criticisms of the books and authors of the country. Through *Boletin del Libro y el Pueblo* and even through the *Volantes del Libro y el Pueblo*, which has replaced the *Boletin*, a bibliographic magazine of popular interest has been suggested. Articles and bibliographies have appeared in *Boletin del Libro y el Pueblo* which would appeal to the people in general and which would be especially useful in bringing

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the library before the entire population. Since 1932, this vehicle of publicity has experimented advantageously toward the achievement of its purpose. Apart from these two organs which the Department has at its disposal, other mediums of publicity have also been used—mediums similar to those employed by libraries of other countries, as, for example, weekly conferences, the story hour, distribution of lists with short courses of reading, moving pictures, the daily press, and the radio, whereby libraries make special mention of new and interesting books.

The Department has had under its supervision the training of librarians, including instruction whenever possible in the technical knowledge indispensable for efficiently fulfilling their duty. As part of the effort to carry out the above-mentioned plans, more or less formal courses in library service have been established from time to time. The first library school opened in 1916 in conjunction with the National Library and later in 1925 and 1929 other courses of library economics favored by the Department were renewed. Many librarians now employed in the capital and states received their training in these schools. The Government, on the other hand, comprehending the necessity of a well trained personnel for staffing its libraries, sent several students to the United States who later returned to Mexico with modern ideas of library economy and who have been an appreciable factor in the advancement of public libraries.

Not only for the use of those employed in the libraries but also for the public in general, a small though well provided reference library in the fields of bibliography and library economy has been established in the central offices of the Department. As a means of raising the standard of libraries and librarians, there were held in 1927 and 1928 the First and Second National Congresses of librarians, wherein important conclusions were reached and many resolutions adopted which without doubt have contributed in a large measure to the progress of the libraries in Mexico. In these Congresses, matters of such importance as public, reference, special and juvenile libraries were discussed; the intellectual, moral and material improvement of the librarian; publicity programs; reorganization of the courses of study in library service, etc.

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With the hope of improving the services now offered, the Department has also undertaken a study of technical problems which naturally arose during the formative period. All obtainable works on library service published in the United States and in Europe have been most helpful. In general, the system of library service followed in Mexico is based on that of the United States, with, of course, such modifications and adaptations as were deemed most suited to the needs and conditions of the country. Translations of classification and cataloging codes which have already been begun will probably be completed during the present year, and these, together with additional compilations, will form the basis for the future rules governing the library service in Mexico.

The Department of Libraries under the Secretary of Education has done meritorious work in establishing public libraries, although a complete system has not yet been effected. The prodigious effort of introducing and subsequently cultivating a modern library system in Mexico can only be appreciated when one realizes that the public library has been in existence for barely ten years and its patronage by the general public has heretofore been prohibited by age-old tradition. The tremendous influence of the public library, resulting from the endeavor of broad-minded educators and citizens who believe in the benefits of mass enlightenment, can be estimated from the fact that with an approximate total of 100,000 volumes contained in all the institutions of the Federal District under the Department of Education, as many as 900,000 readers have been served annually.

The projects planned for the future public library in Mexico are ample and well designed and it is only hoped there will be sufficient funds to realize these ambitions.

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NEW ZEALAND

BY JOHN BARR, CHIEF LIBRARIAN,

AUCKLAND PUBLIC LIBRARIES

ALTHOUGH New Zealand was discovered in 1642 by Abel Jansen Tasman, it was not annexed to the British crown until two centuries had passed. After Tasman's brief visit no other navigator visited New Zealand until Captain Cook practically rediscovered the islands in 1769, and not until the opening of the nineteenth century did any settlers arrive. These consisted of whalers and sealers, traders and missionaries. When the British government took New Zealand under its care in 1840 there were only a few hundred European settlers all told. It is of interest, therefore, to notice that almost contemporaneous with the founding of the Colony we find the beginnings of the library movement in New Zealand.

As far as the writer has been able to ascertain, the first place in the young Colony to possess itself of library facilities was Auckland, which opened a Mechanics' Institute and Library on September 30, 1842. The building, although small, possessed a collection of books, a reading room and a hall, and it provided, with remarkable success, for the literary requirements of the residents, and served them as a community centre for nearly forty years, when it became absorbed in the Auckland Public Library, as will be mentioned later. Wellington followed with an Athenaeum and Mechanics' Institute in 1849, and as other settlements were founded in both islands similar institutes were established, a few of which still flourish at the present time. By 1874

New Zealand

the census showed that there were 161 public libraries, mechanics' institutes and other literary and scientific institutions in the Colony, but, in fact, if not in name, the so-called public libraries were proprietary institutions owned and controlled by members.

Public libraries, in the modern meaning of the term, came into being as the result of the passing of the Public Libraries Act, 1869. This act, which was introduced in the House of Representatives by Mr. (afterwards Sir) Maurice O'Rorke, sought to give local authorities the same power as the Ewart Act had conferred on English communities. At the time the bill was brought forward no library in the Colony was open freely to the public. The principal provisions of the act were (1) Library rate not to exceed one penny in the pound, (2) Management of libraries to be vested in the local governing body of the district, (3) Admission to libraries to be free. Further acts were passed in 1875 and 1877, the whole being consolidated in the Libraries and Mechanics' Institutes Act of 1908, under which the libraries of New Zealand now operate. This act gives power to either local authorities or bodies of trustees to establish and control public libraries, and indicates the manner of carrying out their functions. So far as public libraries controlled by the local authority are concerned it does not materially alter any of the provisions contained in the Act of 1869.

English influences can be readily traced in the library legislation of New Zealand, and in the Act of 1908 it was stipulated that the local authority could appoint to the library committee persons other than members of the local authority.

The first community to adopt the Libraries Act was Auckland, which took over the Mechanics' Institute in 1879, and renamed it the Auckland Public Library. In similar fashion many of the public libraries of the Dominion have come into being. Other libraries—for example, the Canterbury Public Library and Christchurch—came into existence through special legislation. The trend of administration is towards the local government, the trustees-controlled libraries giving place to local authority control.

The public libraries of the Dominion at the present time number over

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four hundred and range from very small collections of a few hundred volumes to large libraries such as those in Wellington, Auckland and Dunedin which in extent and equipment can compare favourably with libraries of towns in England of similar population.

The smaller libraries all have lending departments, some have also reading rooms and small reference sections, and a few have made special provision for children. Most of the smaller libraries are operated with voluntary workers.

The larger libraries have the departments usually found in English libraries: reference, lending, newsroom, and children's department. Special collections are also to be found in many of these libraries—the New Zealand section in Dunedin, the Commercial Library at Wellington, and the Music section at Auckland are typical. School library work has also been established in a number of the larger library systems, the Buffalo system having been taken as a model for Wellington and followed by Auckland and Dunedin.

Extension work is limited, story hours for children and lectures being the most common examples to be found.

Open access to the bookshelves in all departments is universal. The Dewey decimal classification is used in all the larger libraries and the catalogue generally follows the card form, the dictionary arrangement based on Cutter and the Joint Rules being the most usual. Only Auckland so far has issued a printed bulletin.

With a few exceptions a subscription (generally about ten shillings a year) is charged for borrowing books; the exceptions are libraries which have received Carnegie grants.

Generosity to libraries has not been lacking in New Zealand and gifts of considerable value have been made. Among many donors, mention should be made of Alexander Turnbull (Wellington), Sir George Grey, Henry Shaw, William and Thomson W. Leys (Auckland), and T. M. Hocken and Robert McNab (Dunedin).

As a summary of the growth of libraries in New Zealand, the following statistics taken from the census of 1874 (the first to include libraries) and 1926 (the latest available) are given:

New Zealand

Year	Population (Excluding Maoris)	No. of libraries	No. of volumes
1874	. . . 299,514	161	98,039
1926	1,344,469	435	1,266,892 ¹

The Libraries Association of New Zealand was formed in 1910 for the purpose of promoting the establishment, and improving the management, of libraries. The constitution of the Association is based on that of the Library Association of the United Kingdom. A number of conferences have been held and the *Proceedings* have been printed.

The bibliography of New Zealand libraries has yet to be made and there is little of consequence to be recorded so far.

¹ Public libraries only; the 1874 figures include libraries of institutes of a quasi-public character.

NICARAGUA

BY LUIS CUADRA CEA,

DIRECTOR OF THE JOSÉ MADRIZ LIBRARY, LEÓN

TRANSLATED BY DR. WINTHROP H. CHENERY,

LIBRARIAN OF WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY, ST. LOUIS

NICARAGUA lacks any popular movement for the advancement of public libraries. With the exception of the National Library all are due to the initiative of individuals. All encountered great difficulty in establishing themselves. Their condition is stationary.

Twelve public libraries are functioning in seven cities. The volume of their book-stock does not correspond to the population, and the daily attendance of readers is scarcely one per thousand inhabitants.

Some are under the control of the city governments. In these the continual shifting of employees is a drawback. Usually the same room serves as reading room for books and periodicals and as stack room. There are book cases three meters high, since the shelving was not designed specially for books.

Catalogs are in use arranged alphabetically by author and title. Each volume is marked with the initial letter and the serial number which corresponds to that work after the same letter in the catalog.

Books are asked for either by slip or by word of mouth. In no case do readers have access to the shelves.

In several libraries lectures have been held on different subjects.

The Biblioteca de Todos (Library for All) at Masaya, is the only one which issues books for home use. A few libraries have service for children, but none has it for hospitals.

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The reading room hours are in the afternoon and evening, closing at 9 P.M. The National Library is open all day and some libraries are open for a part of the day on Sundays and holidays.

CHINANDEGA (11,000 INHABITANTS)

Sociedad de Obreros (Workingmen's Association), founded in 1930 by workingmen, has three hundred volumes. Average number of readers per day: 5. Librarian, Hernán Baldizón.

LEÓN (50,000 INHABITANTS)

Unión de la Juventud (Union of Youth). Founded in 1899 by university students. Had four thousand volumes. For seven years published a bulletin, the best of its kind in the country. Partly supported by municipal subsidy. Was closed on account of the revolution of 1909.

José Madriz. Founded in 1921 under the name of *Benito Juárez*. The present name was adopted in 1931. Has twelve thousand volumes. Subsidized by the Ministry of Public Instruction to the extent of 20 pesos per month. Occupies a room in the basement of the city hall. Managed by a group of private citizens. Published a bulletin from 1928 to 1930. Average number of readers per day: 30. Librarian: Luís Cuadra Cea.

Fray Bartolomé de las Casas. Founded in 1923 by a group of natives of the suburb of Sutiaba where it is situated. Has three hundred and twenty volumes, but suffered losses in the revolution of 1926. Receives from the city a monthly subsidy of 6 pesos. Average number of readers per day: 15. Librarian: Andrés Mercado.

MANAGUA (43,000 INHABITANTS)

Biblioteca Nacional (National Library). The first public library to be established in Nicaragua. It is dependent upon the Ministry of Public Instruction and receives 160 pesos per month. Was founded in 1881 by General Don Joaquín Zavala, president of the republic. Among its notable librarians are numbered the late Modesto Barrios and the late Professor Miguel Ramírez Goyena, author of the *Flora Nicaragüense*.

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It just escaped being destroyed when the Mascota Building was set on fire on August 20, 1921. It also escaped the fire which followed the earthquake of 1931, a fire which destroyed a large part of the city. It has eleven thousand volumes. The daily average of readers in its early years was three; in 1886 the number rose to five; at present the number is thirty-three.

The children's department, established by its present directress, registers a daily attendance of twenty-five. It occupies a rented house and is served by the Director-Secretary, Señora Bedel y Portero.

Biblioteca Obrera (Workingmen's Library). Founded August 3, 1927, by workingmen. Receives a monthly subsidy of 10 pesos from the government of the National District. On account of the earthquake it was closed March 31, 1931.

Biblioteca del Periodista (The Journalist's Library). Founded May 8, 1932, on the initiative of Señor Manuel Monterrey. Has four hundred volumes. Occupies a room in the National Library, but it is proposed to move it to the Law School. Is managed by a committee of private citizens, Doña Josefa Toledo de Aguerri, Chairman.

Unión Nicaragüense (Nicaraguan Union). The association of this name hopes soon to be able to open a library. It will consist exclusively of works by Nicaraguan, Central American and South American authors.

MASAYA (13,000 INHABITANTS)

Biblioteca de Todos (Library for All). Founded January 1, 1923, by a committee of private citizens, who presented it to the city council. It has four hundred volumes. Occupies a booth in the Central Park. Average number of readers per day: 10. Librarian: Augustín Loaisiga Cuadra. Monthly salary: 8 pesos.

JINOTEPE (7,500 INHABITANTS)

Biblioteca Municipal (City Library). Founded November 2, 1922, by the mayor or Señor Cristóbal Genie. Has four hundred works. It was plundered in the revolution of 1926. Occupies a room in the city hall.

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Average number of readers per day: 20. Librarian: Abén Cuadra.
Monthly salary: 15 pesos.

ESTELÍ (11,000 INHABITANTS)

Biblioteca Obrera (Workingmen's Library). Founded September 15, 1921, by workingmen. Has been closed on account of the revolution of 1926.

MATAGALPA (23,000 INHABITANTS)

Biblioteca Morazán. Founded September 15, 1914, on the initiative of Señor Modesto Armijo and its present librarian, Señor José Antonio Machado. Has four thousand volumes. Occupies a room in the public market. Receives a monthly subsidy from the city government of 16 pesos. Average number of readers per day: 15.

BLUEFIELDS (5,000 INHABITANTS)

Biblioteca Municipal (City Library). Founded September 15, 1929, by private citizens who presented it to the city government. It has 433 works, the majority being in English and a few in Indian dialect. It occupies a room in the city hall. Average number of readers per day: 20. Librarian, Miss Delfina V. Hammond. Monthly salary: 20 pesos.

NORWAY

BY KARL FISCHER,

LATE CONSULTING LIBRARIAN TO THE MINISTRY

FOR ECCLESIASTICAL

AND EDUCATIONAL AFFAIRS

THE first public libraries in Norway date from the close of the 18th century and the commencement of the 19th. With the exception of the Deichman Library in Oslo, these libraries were all in rural districts, their inception generally being due to clergymen. The bishop organized and directed such collections. Any member of the rural population could, by paying a subscription, become a member of these reading-societies, but persons without means were permitted to take out books on loan gratis.

Most of these collections of books fared very badly and it was practically necessary to begin afresh when Henrik Wergeland, the poet (1808-45), in his early years appealed to the people "to devote themselves earnestly to the acquisition of knowledge . . . by promoting and using public book collections."

Efforts to promote public libraries assumed the character of a national movement when *Selskabet for Norges Vel* (The Society for the Welfare of Norway) on its reorganization in 1829, once more included this task on its programme. By giving encouragement and guidance and by furnishing support, the society was able in no small degree to maintain existing collections and to form new ones. Concurrent with the agitation of both Henrik Wergeland and the Society, the political movement which first found expression in the Storting of 1833, awakened interest in the democratic educational resources that the

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country possessed in these public libraries. The result of this combination of circumstances was that in 1847, 230 public libraries were stated to exist.

All these libraries were maintained by private subscription. After the proposal of a state subsidy to public libraries had been submitted to the Storting of 1836, the Ministry for Ecclesiastical Affairs was empowered to apportion a sum not exceeding 2000 spd.¹ among existing libraries. The first grant was made in 1841 and similar distributions were continued for the next twenty years—from 1851 as a state grant direct. Norway is thus probably the first country to adopt state support for libraries.

Notwithstanding this, our libraries continued to lead a somewhat obscure and sorry existence. The ability and desire to read was but little developed in many rural districts, and, owing to prevailing economic conditions, the libraries often encountered difficulty in securing the local grant which was a condition of the state contribution. In the towns where public libraries existed in the last century these institutions did not play a prominent part in the intellectual life of the place.

It was only toward the end of the last century that the first murmur reached us of the new library movement in England and America. Mr. Tambs Lyche, an engineer and *litterateur*, during a stay in the United States, had learned to appreciate American public libraries, and on his return home, in his publication *Kringsjaa* opened our eyes to the powerful educational force that the libraries had become in English-speaking countries. The most important result of Mr. Lyche's activity was the decision of the Oslo City Council in 1898 to reorganize on modern principles the Deichman Library presented to the town in 1780 by Carl Deichman, an iron foundry owner. This reorganization was left to Haakon Nyhuus, a librarian, who in 1897 returned from America where for several years he had worked in the Chicago Public Library. Within a short time this antiquated library had become a modern and much-used public institution.

¹ Specie dollars.

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Two of the largest towns in Norway, Bergen and Trondheim, soon followed the example set by Oslo, and gradually this reform movement spread until the public libraries in practically every Norwegian town have been rejuvenated during the last 30 years.

As a consequence there arose a demand in library circles for central control of public libraries, as well as for other reforms, particularly in the many small rural libraries. A departmental committee appointed in 1901 proposed a new order of things in these matters. The proposal was accepted by the national assembly in the following year and it is on the basis of this arrangement, which, in the main, still applies, that the development of our libraries has continued during the present century.

There are no laws in Norway governing libraries; regulations regarding central administration and the conditions of the state subsidy are imposed by the Storting by ordinary resolution, detailed rules for management being drawn up by the Ministry.

The arrangement of 1902, already mentioned, was primarily based on the appointment, by the Ministry for Ecclesiastical and Educational Affairs, of a consulting librarian on questions concerning public and school libraries. In 1921 this officer became chief of the Library Office of the Ministry. This office promotes the foundation of new libraries, proffers advice and guidance, exercises control, submits proposals for the state grant, and apportiones the same, publishes specimen catalogues and a journal for libraries, and arranges library courses.

As previously mentioned, the State, since 1841, has given support to public libraries, first occasionally but annually since 1876. Subject to certain conditions, the grant is made to all municipal public libraries, and, in some cases, to institutional libraries as well. The most important stipulation is that the libraries concerned are to raise a sum equal to the state grant for which application is made. A library could thus obtain up to 500 crowns per annum from the State, but owing to the difficult financial conditions of recent years the town libraries (with the exception of the smallest) have been obliged to forego every contribution; in the case of the rural libraries the grant has fallen to about

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one-third. The state grant and the corresponding local grant may, as a rule, be used only for books and salaries.

The total state grant to public libraries showed a steady increase until 1922-23 when it attained the maximum figure of 180,000 crowns, 150,000 of which were for books and salaries. There has since been a decrease and recently the grant has fallen to about 80,000 crowns.

The books must be chosen from the catalogues and lists published by the Library Office. The catalogues are compiled in consultation with experts in various branches of literature; titles are arranged and designated in accordance with Dewey's decimal system; Cutter marks are furnished, and cataloguing is carried out mainly as in American libraries.

The last (1926) catalogue contained about 5000 titles of Norwegian, Danish and Swedish works of all branches of literature. Further, each issue of the publication *For Folkeoplysning* (For the Enlightenment of the People), which is published by the Library Office and sent to all public libraries, also contains lists of new publications and reviews of books. Catalogue cards for distribution are not printed.

By agreement between the Ministry and the publishing houses, the state-aided public libraries are allowed a discount of 10 to 20 per cent on all books included in the catalogue. This discount is determined by the publisher in each case and comes into force a certain time (maximum three months) after publication.

An arrangement peculiar to Norwegian libraries is the institution known as *Folkeboksamlingenes Ekspedisjon* (the Forwarding Office of Public Libraries). In order to ensure to the public libraries a strong and cheap book-binding, the Ministry, as early as 1903, entrusted this work to one book-binder in Oslo, subject to the superintendence of the Ministry.

The public libraries must bind all books purchased by them from the catalogues of the Library Office, at this central establishment. The volumes are furnished with title, Dewey number and Cutter author mark (furnished by the Library Office), a pocket and a card, and are despatched post free to the libraries.

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By arrangement with the publishers the Forwarding Office is in a position to maintain a very large stock of bound copies of the books most in demand, so that about 90 per cent of the volumes ordered can be supplied at once.

The Library Office is supposed to oversee the operation of the libraries, but insufficient personnel and the long distances involved have rendered effective superintendence impossible. An attempt has therefore been made to appoint a local inspector for each province or county, paid by the State or province. This has been successful in only a few instances.

In order to be able to understand and appreciate the activities of the public libraries of Norway, particularly the rural ones, the peculiar natural and domiciliary conditions of the country must be taken into account. Seventy-six per cent is composed of uninhabitable stretches of mountain and snow covered land. High rock wall-like ranges divide one valley from another; to the west and north, deep fjords cut far into the country, and thousands of small islands lie along the whole length of coast. Communication is rendered still more difficult by the small, scattered population. On an average, there are nine inhabitants to the sq. km., as against 81 in Denmark and 361 in England. The rural population exists as isolated families or small clusters of dwellings around individual farms.

About 1200 state-aided public libraries exist at present, with about 1,516,000 volumes, of which 566,000 are in rural and 950,000 in town libraries. All of the 67 towns and practically all rural municipalities have public libraries, nearly all of which are the property of the community. Their revenue is partly the local grant—usually by municipal vote—and partly the state contribution mentioned above. Various rural libraries also levy a subscription on borrowers.

Usually, rural libraries are accommodated in some public building such as a school, parish hall or church, or in a building belonging to a young people's association. Frequently, the accommodation provided is scarcely appropriate and in many cases it is not reserved exclusively for the library. Most of the town libraries also occupy one or more rooms

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in a public building. In only eight of the larger towns are special library buildings found, but these suit present-day demands in every respect. A very large modern building to house the main section of the Deichman Library, Oslo, is now under construction.

The post of librarian at all rural and most town libraries is a part-time appointment only, not more than about one-fourth of the town libraries being able to afford to pay a librarian a living wage. It is only at the largest town libraries that the staffs are in receipt of fairly satisfactory remuneration. Most of the workers are men, but a considerable number of women—many trained abroad—is to be found in the town libraries, particularly the larger.

There is no Norwegian library school and the consequent lack of advanced instruction has sent many, mainly women, to training schools abroad—to the United States in particular—for the instruction necessary for the higher posts. Nearly half of all foreign students at American library schools come from Norway. Some of the larger town libraries accept pupils, who, in courses of a few months' theoretical and practical instruction, are trained for library service. The courses promoted by the Library Office aim only at giving an elementary knowledge of library work to the librarians of rural districts and to the assistants at the smaller town libraries. As the librarians of small public libraries, particularly the rural, are frequently teachers, it has been decided by law that at Teachers' training colleges the pupils are to be given a short course of instruction in the organization and work of a public library.

Our public libraries vary greatly in size, from a few thousand volumes to a few hundred, and, in consequence, organization and working methods differ. While most of the rural libraries work according to methods to which they have long grown accustomed, the newer systems imported from America have been applied to town libraries and to some rural libraries also. The Deichman Library since its reorganization on American principles has come to be looked upon as the example set for our town libraries. The training which so many Norwegians have received at American library schools has also worked to the same end.

The procedure in book purchase is for the libraries to draw up their

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orders in duplicate, one copy being sent to the book dealer, the other first to the Library Office, whence it goes to the Forwarding Office for checking and the transmission of the books, duly bound, to the libraries concerned.

The lending of books is on the open access system and the records are on cards, on the American system. The same method is also general in rural libraries but the old-fashioned plan of recording loans in a register still frequently prevails.

In the year 1929-30, according to the reports of about 800 rural libraries and 74 town libraries, the total number of volumes loaned was 3,477,000 of which 686,000 were in rural districts. This gives a loan of only 1.24 volumes per inhabitant per annum.

As the rural communes are extensive, averaging 445 sq. km., most districts have several libraries, either a main library with branches or several independent libraries often without cooperation. The inhabitants of rural communes adjoining towns are, on payment of a fee, frequently allowed access to the town library; no organized connection otherwise exists between rural and the larger libraries. For economic reasons, it has not been found possible to carry out any effective organization on the lines, for example, of the Central Libraries in Denmark. In quite a number of country districts and parishes, other libraries exist—particularly those run by young people's associations.

A far brighter picture is presented by the town libraries, where for 1930-31 the average per inhabitant was 3.76, the highest figure (the town of Hamar) being 10.27.

About half of the town libraries have a reading room with a collection of reference books, but rural and smaller town libraries have not had funds to establish reference sections. Fully appreciative of the importance of a good reference library, the *Norsk Bibliotekforening* (Norwegian Library Association) has, with the assistance of public grants, recently established collections of reference books at certain libraries.

The Music Library connected with the Bergen Public Library deserves special mention. It contains Grieg's manuscripts and correspondence, besides his collection of music and of literature devoted to music.

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The same library also accommodates, and has a reading room for, the important library belonging to *Vestlandske Blindeforbund* (the West Norway Association for the Blind).

In the comparatively short time during which modern library ideas have prevailed in Norway, our public libraries have been so busy with new work that no opportunity has been afforded them of dealing with other tasks; moreover, they have not had the funds for comprehensive extension work.

Interested librarians have delivered library lectures all over the country, partly at the many People's Academies and partly at broadcasting stations; the Norwegian Library Association has also prepared, for educational purposes, lantern-slide lectures to be loaned for use at places where an effort is to be made on behalf of a public library.

The four largest cities have libraries with branches, but most towns are so small that one library for each proves sufficient. In rural districts there is a demand for several libraries in each commune, and an attempt is being made to meet this demand by sub-libraries or distributing depots and by founding several independent libraries.

In a country like Norway with its scattered population and slender economic resources, travelling libraries should prove a natural channel for the distribution of books. The Library Office sent out its first travelling library about 25 years ago and has since continued its labours in this respect.

The travelling libraries have either a permanent stock of fifty volumes or they may be made up for the special requirements of the person renting the stock. A printed catalogue has been compiled (1932) of the available books, about 7,000 volumes, deposited in Oslo. From this collection loans are made to study-circles maintained by country youths, young industrial workers, temperance societies, etc., of the special literature required.

Besides these travelling libraries, the administration of which rests with the Library Office, the State maintains circulating collections for the use of the lighthouse and harbour services and for those engaged on road and railway construction.

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The large mercantile marine has also striven to obtain reading matter. *Statens Vandreboksamlingen for Sjomenn* (The State Travelling Library for Seamen) administered by the Mercantile Marine Department of the Ministry of Commerce has existed since 1910. Masters of Norwegian ships are loaned cases gratis from the Head Office at Oslo and from Norwegian consulates in a number of ports abroad. It has been found difficult, however, to keep a check on the cases loaned. More recently, therefore, on the initiative of Funnar Stenersen (of the Forwarding Office) permanent libraries have been placed on board ships engaged on long voyages, and 153 libraries with about 34,000 volumes, all showing signs of extensive use, are now installed. The owners bear the major part of the cost, but recently a small contribution has been made by the State.

The rural public libraries usually have a separate section for children's literature, and in addition, about half the public elementary schools possess state-aided children's collections. In the larger towns work is pursued more actively with children; here, again, the influence of America can be traced. This, with modern ideas of education, has contributed to bring children and the library into closer relations. The scope of this work has been greatest at the Deichman Library, Oslo, and at the Public Library at Bergen. The majority of town libraries have special lending departments for children and some despatch class libraries of 30 to 40 volumes to town schools. About one-third of the town libraries have separate reading rooms for children; a few also have a "fairy-tale room" for story-hours and lantern-slide lectures. Instruction is given in various town libraries to classes as they leave the public elementary schools.

The Norwegian Library Association has taken up the work of providing hospitals with well arranged and carefully selected libraries.

The Norwegian Library Association, founded in 1913, has a membership of librarians, library officials, and men and women interested in library matters. The Association holds annual meetings and publishes technical and educational matter to further the welfare of Norwegian libraries.

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The official organ of the public libraries, *For Folkeoplysning* (six numbers annually), appeared in 1916 as a continuation of *For Folke og Barneboksamlinger* (1907-15) (For Public and Children's Libraries), under the editorship of the consulting librarian to the Ministry for Ecclesiastical and Educational Affairs.

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PALESTINE

BY S. SHUNAMI,

JEWISH NATIONAL AND UNIVERSITY LIBRARY,

JERUSALEM

PALESTINE is a country where many nations compete for influence, especially cultural influence. There is hardly a nation striving for influence beyond its own confines which has not its own cultural institution in Palestine. The many elementary and high schools, archaeological and religious institutions maintained by several nations of Europe and America show how great an interest the cultural world takes in this small section of Asia. Almost all these institutions try to diffuse their national culture among the population of the country. It is only natural that a certain kind of competition should take place between these institutions, and it is rather curious that the popular library has not come to occupy any place in their programme of cultural penetration.

Although many of these institutions have their own libraries, and some of them have fine and rich collections, nevertheless they specialise mostly in Biblical, archaeological and religious subjects. Whatever the reason, the fact remains that the foreign religious missions and cultural institutions in Palestine have not made much use of the idea of popular libraries. It must, however, be mentioned that some small club and association libraries, chiefly among the Christian population, have been helpful to their members. The activity of these libraries is, of course, limited to certain circles, and cannot be qualified as public libraries.

The Mandatory Government has achieved a marvellous work of

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popular education (chiefly among the Moslem population). Hundreds of elementary schools were founded in the last twelve years by the Mandatory Power and it is therefore all the more surprising that the public library was absolutely excluded from its scheme of education. There is no popular library to be found among any of the institutions under the Palestine Government. It is therefore easily understood that no library legislation exists in Palestine.

Libraries have no interest for the overwhelming majority of the Arab masses owing to their illiteracy. Politics have almost a monopoly of the activities of the Arab intelligentsia and this seems to be the reason that, until now, only very few and very poor beginnings of popular libraries have been made among the Arabs.

If there is anything in Palestine to be defined as a library movement, it is among the Jewish population. Learning and study are prescribed as a fundamental duty in Jewish religion. The origin of Jewish libraries in Palestine is, like the origin of Jewish libraries in general, to be found in religion. In the Jewish Code of Law there is even a paragraph which may be considered as an obligation to collect books (Shulhan Aruk, Yoreh Deah § 270). Great authorities of the Jewish religion make it a duty to lend books. Every Synagogue of importance considered it a matter of course to have a more or less large collection of books. These books were in the care of one or other of the members of the Synagogue who were worthy of the name *Yodea Sefer* (literally, a knower of books). Often the beadle was in charge of the library; he might sometimes be a *Yodea Sefer* himself. The people in charge had in many cases devised the system of cataloging and classification of their own, which was always primitive but sometimes practical. These libraries comprised only religious books, almost exclusively in the Hebrew language. Such was the situation in Palestine, in particular in Jerusalem, where the greatest part of the Jewish population lived, until the end of the third quarter of the nineteenth century.

In December, 1874, a group of intellectuals called *Maskilim* founded the first secular library in Palestine. Great was the excitement among

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the orthodox Jewish elements. How could such a profane institution be called into being in the Holy City? The Rabbinate of Jerusalem laid an anathema on the first popular library and this was renewed when occasion called for it. The first Jewish popular library in Palestine had a short life. It could not exist in an atmosphere of narrow-minded religious persecution.

About ten years later, another attempt at founding a library was made by young Jerusalem intellectuals, only to sustain a second failure. In the last decade of the nineteenth century, the situation seemed to be ripe for another attempt and it was relatively successful. With the help of some devoted people in Palestine and abroad, a small public library with a reading room was established under the auspices of the fraternal order *B'nai B'rith*. The library was housed in a rented flat not fit for library purposes. The beginning of the twentieth century was marked in the history of Palestine libraries by the building of the Jerusalem Jewish Public Library, specially constructed for the purpose. This library had more than a local importance. Its existence encouraged the intellectuals of other towns and Jewish colonies to try to establish libraries in their own localities and they had some success.

The first secular Jewish library of Jerusalem, even if only a popular library, bore within itself the seeds of the great idea of a Jewish National Library in connection with the Zionist Movement. It actually developed into this in the course of years with the help of the devoted bibliophile and great collector, who gave all his life and fortune to his ideal, the late Dr. Joseph Chasanowicz, a Russian-Jewish physician. The war brought stagnation to the library movement in Palestine. The post-war years mark a new epoch in the history of Palestine and also in the history of the popular libraries in this country.

The recognition of Palestine as a Jewish National Home brought streams of Jewish people from all parts of the world. The majority of these immigrants were intellectuals. A considerable number of them decided to become manual workers under the impulse of moral and Zionist interests. New blood entered the cultural veins of Palestine. Owing to these knowledge-seeking people, new libraries were estab-

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lished in town and village, and the old ones doubled and trebled their stocks in a very short time.

In the forefront of library establishment it was the labor class of Palestine that distinguished itself. There is no labor settlement without a relatively well selected collection of books at the disposal of the members of the settlement. The Federation of Jewish Labor in Palestine even maintained for a few years a travelling library, which was the first library of that kind in Palestine.

There are now hundreds of small libraries in Palestine, the greater part of them founded in the last ten years. But if we define the term library as an *organized* collection of books we are obliged considerably to reduce this number. Only some of them have catalogues and of such, only a few have a passable catalogue. Even libraries comprising tens of thousands of books do not find it important and necessary to have a modern, well equipped catalogue worthy of the name, and a properly organized circulation. And this is because of the lack of trained library people. The only library in Palestine having a professionally trained staff is the Jewish National and University Library in Jerusalem. The director of this library, Dr. Hugo Bergmann, was the first in Palestine to realise the vital importance of having trained librarians. He sent a great number of his staff to the Paris Library School (under the auspices of the A.L.A.) and also arranged for a few of his staff to attend London and American Library Schools.

The idea of improvement of library service through improvement of personnel proved here, too, an excellent method. The Jewish National and University Library, though it does not logically belong to this field of activity, devoted much time and energy to the general public in past years and is even now in touch with many villages and settlements in the country. But public opinion in Palestine has not yet appreciated the great importance of a professional training for the librarian. Public opinion in Palestine still holds to the conception of a *Yodea Sefer* making a fine librarian. Partly it is the fault of the trained librarian who has not sufficiently advocated his professional idea.

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As was mentioned at the beginning of this article, Palestine has not the missionary who is an eager, popular librarian; neither has it the trained librarian who would act as a missionary for his profession. This absence of propaganda must also be held responsible for the neglect of children's needs in the libraries of Palestine, for despite the extraordinary efforts made in the cause of Jewish child education in the country, there are no special libraries for children or children's departments in public libraries.

The lack of propaganda is the reason that even such Arabs and Jews as are seeking a better mutual understanding between the two peoples have not hitherto realised the extent to which the library—being, as it is, above all considerations of politics, races and creeds, and being of international character—could exercise an influence in helping to secure that harmony which the country needs so badly.

We have good reason to prophesy a bright future for the libraries of Palestine, if the librarian will extend his professional activities outside the library and will succeed in making it understood to the Palestinian public that libraries are as important a public duty as any part of education, and that a library deserves this name only when it is properly organized.

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PANAMA

BY OCTAVIO MÉNDEZ PEREIRA,

FORMERLY SECRETARY OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

TRANSLATED BY DR. WINTHROP H. CHENERY,

LIBRARIAN OF WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY, ST. LOUIS

THERE are two classes of public libraries in the Republic of Panama: city libraries and popular libraries of national character.

In the first class the most important are those which operate in the cities of Panama and Colón, each possessing more than twenty thousand volumes. At the present time these cities are trying to widen the radius of activity of their libraries by means of better organization and classification of services.

The libraries of national character comprise the popular school libraries distributed among the more important villages of the country. These libraries are already more than ninety in number and constitute dynamic centers which are playing a great role in the culture of the people of Panama. They were established by a decree in the year 1924 "to have the character of institutions for the extension of the schools and to serve as centers of attraction for the people in general, so that they may become, to use John Dewey's expression, springs and not ponds." Although intended for the immediate services of the schools these libraries since their beginning have been open to the general public and on certain conditions the books may circulate.

Among the more important of these popular school libraries are those of the Rural Normal School of the city of David, of the Rural Normal School of the city of Aguadulce, and the Public School of Penonomé

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and of the National Institute of the city of Panama. The latter possesses more than fifteen thousand volumes classified on the Dewey decimal system combined with the author-table of C. A. Cutter.

In addition to the above mentioned libraries one may include in the number of popular libraries the National Archives, where are kept important documents relative to the history of the Isthmus and the libraries of the Panama Academy of History, the Panama Academy of Language and the Bolívar Society of Panama, all of which are in process of formation. The Rotary Club also is endeavoring at the present time to organize a children's library for the children of the capital city.

Since the year 1925 there has been established in the Republic of Panama *Día del Libro* (Book Day) "with the object of awakening the habit of reading and of encouraging private cooperation for the development of the school libraries of the country." The *Día del Libro* is observed each year on the last Saturday of August, and on this day lectures and literary criticisms are given, collections of books are made from house to house, prizes are awarded for reading competitions announced the year before, etc.

As may be seen, the movement for the development of popular libraries is hardly more than begun in Panama, but at the present time it seems to be moving in the right direction and already forms a part of the system of public instruction. There will soon be added to this library movement the school cinema, promoted by means of cooperative societies.

PARAGUAY

BY MARIA ADELA GARCETE, PROFESSOR OF LITERATURE,

HIGH SCHOOL OF THE COLEGIO INTERNACIONAL

TRANSLATED BY MILES O. PRICE,

LAW LIBRARIAN, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

IN ASUNCION is the *Biblioteca Goday*, named for its founder. It is very rich in historical works and is open every afternoon, but no books are loaned for home use.

The *Colegio Nacional*, Faculty of Law, and the Normal School, have their own libraries, which loan books to their students and faculty for a period of from three to eight days. The primary schools have children's libraries, where the children meet to read.

The National Council of Education has a rich library which loans books to all the teachers of the republic. Loans are made for a maximum of one month. Books are circulated by mail.

The Carnegie Foundation has an English library, which has been placed in charge of the *Colegio Internacional* and loans books upon a deposit of one hundred pesos, legal tender.

The *Escuela Artigas*, supported and established by the Government of Uruguay, possesses a good library, which loans books to students, alumni and faculty.

There exists the nucleus of a public library, organized by Professor Cosme Ruiz Diaz, exiled because of his extremist ideas.

In addition to those mentioned, the *Gimnasio Paraguayo*, the *Seminario Conciliar*, the *Escuela Militar*, etc., have libraries for members.

There are similar libraries in the interior in similar centers: normal schools, national schools, primary schools, and so forth.

PERSIA

BY HERRICK B. YOUNG,

LIBRARIAN, AMERICAN COLLEGE, TEHERAN

WHEN one considers the fact that only between ten and fifteen per cent of Persia's total population of 12,000,000 is literate, one can understand why there is as yet very little interest in library science. The forward steps in the past ten years are worth mention, however.

With the great increase in education throughout the entire country, much more interest has been evidenced in reading. The largest library in the nation is that of the American College of Teheran, which has grown from 2,000 to almost 20,000 within the past four years. The library of the Persian parliament is next in size with about 15,000 volumes. The rapid growth of this library has been slowed down enormously during the past year because of the fall in value of Persian currency, making purchase of books from abroad almost impossible.

Only a few hundred books are published annually in the entire land. Most of these are translations of European and American writers and textbooks for the schools. Thus the acquisition of Persian and Arabic volumes by any library is a slow process. Book stores are few and carry only from 200 to 300 volumes at any one time.

Persia's libraries at present may be divided into four classes: privately owned collections of rare Persian and Arabic books and manuscripts, which are uncataloged and inaccessible to other than the personal friends of the owners; a few rental libraries in the four or five larger

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cities, carrying a limited number of translations of European and American authors; libraries in connection with foreign institutions such as the American Mission and the English Bank; and governmental libraries in connection with Parliament and the Ministry of Education.

With the return of several Persians from Europe and America to positions of prominence in government educational circles and the increasing usefulness of the library of the American College of Teheran, more and more interest is being shown in libraries by government officials. Assistants in the American College library spent the past summer holiday classifying the small libraries of the government Law School and the government Military School, according to the Dewey Decimal System. This year for the first time a full time librarian has been appointed for the Higher Normal School, the president of which institution has just returned from graduate study at Columbia University. Although this librarian has never had specific training in library science he has studied in America and with the aid of the librarian and assistants of the American College of Teheran he is organising that library properly.

A visit to the private libraries of the Persian collectors of valuable manuscripts is a nightmare for a librarian. Cast into corners and heaped on the floor at all sorts of angles one sees books and manuscripts under layers of dust. The owner, alone, has a vague idea as to where any particular book might be, of course. A 700-year old copy of the *Shah Nameh of Firdausi* is pulled from beneath a table leg, where it has been serving a useful purpose to level the unevenness caused by the wavy mudbrick floor.

The return visit of one of these bibliophiles to the Library of the American College was equally amusing. Totally unimpressed by the orderly array of volumes on classified shelves, he kept asking to see "old books." When told that acquisitions were governed not by age or rareness but by usefulness to the student body, he turned up his nose and soon took his departure.

Unfortunately the volumes of the Parliament Library, that of the Ministry of Education and those of the various mosques and shrines

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are not for circulation. One is allowed to visit the libraries at certain hours and use the books in the small reading room, but under no condition to take volumes away. Here, too, the classification system is based on order of acquisition rather than subject arrangement. As a result, the *ABC code book* is between a monumental volume on Russian drama and Browne's *A year among the Persians*. The library of the Ministry of Education contains an excellent collection of volumes in Russian, which has proved a boon to White Russian refugees, especially in the winter, when they are always glad of a few chairs in a warm room where they may forget their present difficulties in reading of the glories of the old régime.

As more and more schools are adopting modern library methods, and Persians are returning from abroad where they have been used to orderly shelves, there seems little doubt that the next decade will see rapid strides in library development in ancient Iran.

Obviously there has not as yet been any sort of legislation concerning libraries nor is there any sort of association of librarians. Library periodicals in the vernacular will not come into being until there are more libraries and librarians.

PERU

I

BY DR. JORGE BASADRE,
LIBRARIAN, UNIVERSITY OF LIMA

ALTHOUGH cultivated Peruvians are fond of reading and have, in general, a natural gift for speaking and writing, library service has not really arrived in Peru. The libraries are scarce and buildings are old and inappropriate. The positions in them are given and taken mainly for political or personal reasons. The circulation of books is undeveloped. Cataloguing and classification exist in an empirical form. Rural, children's, school and hospital libraries remain unknown.

Libraries belong mostly to the government but there is no special section devoted to them in the Ministry of Education. The largest library of the country is the National Library of Lima. Approximate calculations give it about 90,000 to 95,000 volumes. Many of them are of enormous importance to Peruvian and Hispanic American history and some are also rare books and incunabula. The library has a reading room which is open in the afternoons of working days to anybody except children younger than 15 years.

A little more active is the University Library, also at Lima. The number of its books is only 40,000 to 45,000 and they are of less historical and bibliographical importance than those of the National Library, but they are catalogued after a fashion. Furthermore, it publishes a bibliographical bulletin and periodical lists of new accessions and periodicals, indexes, and also circulates its books among the pro-

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fessors and students. Unfortunately, the instability of the political situation produces frequent interruptions in the whole university life.

Other libraries of scholarly importance in Lima are those of the Geographical Society, the Engineering School, the Engineering Society. A group of ladies formed several years ago a library for themselves in an institution of social importance named *Entre Nous*. In Rimac, a district of the city of Lima, a municipal library was recently opened. Among the provincial cities, the municipal library of Arequipa is perhaps the best. The ecclesiastical archives in Lima, Arequipa, Trujillo and elsewhere keep invaluable sources for the history of Hispanic America.

II

BY FORREST B. SPAULDING,

FORMER DIRECTOR DE BIBLIOTECAS Y

MUSEOS ESCOLARES, PERU

[In 1920 the Republic of Peru passed a new education law to inaugurate which a group of educators from the United States were appointed to administrative posts under the Peruvian Minister of Education. Forrest B. Spaulding, now librarian of the Des Moines Public Library, was appointed Director of Libraries and School Museums and left the United States for Lima, Peru late in 1920. An account of the libraries in Peru at that time is to be found in an article by him entitled "South America and Library Progress" in the April 15, 1922 number of the *Library Journal*. Mr. Spaulding writes to the editor of this volume as follows:]

"Unfortunately, shortly after the American educators reached Lima, the country suffered a serious depression, brought about by the worldwide surplus of her two principal export crops—sugar and cotton. Plans which were made on paper and approved by the government for a nation-wide system of school libraries were never put into effect because the money was not available.

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"The Biblioteca Escolar y Administrativa del Peru was created by decree of President Augusto B. Leguia, April 9, 1921, and provides for grouping, under one central administration, all libraries in the schools and colleges of Peru, as well as all of the separate libraries in the various offices of the Government. The plan provides for a joint or union catalog of the books in these separate libraries, and the interchange of books between them. As far as I know, however, these plans were never carried out, although in 1922 a *reglamento* or code of rules was published by the Minister of Education in an attempt to bring about some uniformity of practices in the cataloging and methods of use of the various libraries. Some of these independent libraries, which would have become a part of this library system, particularly the National Library in Lima, contain many notable works, as well as unknown resources generally unavailable because of the lack of adequate cataloging.

"To a lesser extent the same thing is true of the libraries of the learned societies in Lima in which some of the collections are remarkably complete.

"Señor Carlos Arellano Ibañez, the librarian of the Geographical Society at Lima, has made some progress in an adaptation of the Dewey Decimal scheme of classification, parts of which were printed and published in 1922.

"The library of San Marcos University, an institution which dates from 1551, was at the time I was in Peru the most usable of the libraries in the country.

"With the exception of the books in one of the special halls, the entire library is cataloged, over-cataloged, one might say, though not classified by subjects. First there is what corresponds to an accession record of the entire library, in which each book is given its number in consecutive order. Printed author catalogs in book form exist for the books in the main hall and one of the special halls. There is no method of keeping these up to date. Fifty separate subject catalogs cover the books in the main hall. All but eight of these contain, in alphabetical order by authors, sheets listing the books, roughly classified under

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broad subject headings. The remaining eight contain the entire list of pamphlets arranged alphabetically by authors making it practically impossible to locate any pamphlet material on a given subject. (It should here be added that during the lifetime of the present custodians, any pamphlet of the present date is likely to be remembered and found. The memory of a Peruvian for such details is astounding. I know one instance of a man who has had charge of the archives of a large government department, who can unerringly recall from memory a letter filed under date of receipt, five or ten years back.)

"To borrow a book from the San Marcos University library is not difficult, providing one can prove that one is entitled to the privilege. Merely a signature written in a book kept for that purpose is required. Card records of any sort do not meet with favor in Peru. All library records, including catalogs, circulation records, etc. are from choice kept in books.

"The ancient University of Cuzco, of which a North American, Dr. Albert Geisecke, has been the Rector for ten years past, also possesses a fine library especially rich in Latin works. This library is at present uncataloged. During the past few years many small public libraries have been started due to local initiative, in various parts of Peru, distant from the capital. Though these are small, poorly selected, and generally uncataloged, the interest in them is great, and time and money are all that are needed for their development. That such local initiative exists in spite of the efforts made in Lima to control absolutely from the capital, all educational institutions in the Republic, is an encouraging sign.

"There is no one who knows just what treasures the national library now contains. The stupendous task of cataloging the collection is slowly proceeding, having been courageously undertaken by the present librarian, Dr. A. B. Deustua. But unless the Peruvian government appropriates money for this task, it seems likely never to be accomplished."

THE PHILIPPINES

ABSTRACT OF ARTICLE BY

GABRIEL A. BERNARDO,

LIBRARIAN, UNIVERSITY OF THE PHILIPPINES,

MANILA

EARLY libraries in the Philippines were chiefly those established by the Spanish religious orders in the last years of the sixteenth century and the early ones of the seventeenth. In Manila alone there were eleven of these libraries, with altogether nearly ninety thousand volumes. They are spoken of as "semi-public" indicating that they were used to some extent by outsiders. In 1780, by a royal decree, the *Real Sociedad Económica de Amigos del País* was organized to print and distribute pamphlets and other literature on agricultural and economic topics. This society had a small collection of books. There were other special libraries, including the *Museo-Biblioteca de Filipinas* (1891), one of whose officers had the title of "librarian" and which published a bulletin, the first library periodical in the Philippines. Its director, Don Pedro Alejandro Paterno, did considerable work toward the establishment of a real public library.

These libraries ceased to exist even before the end of the Spanish régime, and the modern library idea owes its inception in the Philippines to American educational pioneers. Between 1898 and 1902, the American public school system was widely introduced by the military government and for almost every school a collection of books was provided for the free use of the school population. The first school library, however, was not formally organized until 1907 by Mrs. Lois S. Osborn,

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a teacher in a provincial high school. The director of the Bureau of Education appointed a school library committee in 1911. School libraries were open to the general public later and at present are the only reading centers in many Philippine communities. In December 1931 there were 4,919 elementary school libraries containing over two million books.

At the same time with the establishment of the school system, the American Circulating Library Association of Manila opened, in 1900, a small subscription library, which, in 1901, passed to government control.

In 1909 it became part of the Philippine Library, consisting of a consolidation of all government collections. On February 4, 1916, however, the Philippine Legislature passed an act establishing the Philippine Library and Museum, a consolidation of several government departments including the Philippine Library, and in 1916 a reorganization act transferred the library and museum to the Department of Justice, in which connection it has been given duties not usually associated with libraries, such as the public enforcement of the new marriage law. This library, however, established deposit and branch libraries in Manila and in the provinces, and included a Legislative Research Office whose services to the Legislature were valuable, not to speak of its function as depository of the official archives of foreign government documents and also of all printed works copyrighted in the Philippines. In recognition of all this work, its name was changed to National Library in 1928.

The growth of true public libraries has been retarded by the vagueness of library legislation and inadequacy of financial support. The National Library has only three city branches, 12 provincial branches and 3 deposit stations. Those in the city barely meet the needs of its reading population.

In Manila there are also four special libraries with public library features. The Military Information Division Library of the U. S. Army welcomes the general public for reference work. The Library of the Philippine Assembly, now merged in the Legislative Reference Di-

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vision of the National Library, has become completely public. The libraries of the Supreme Court and the Attorney General's Office grant special privileges to those engaged in legal studies. The Library of the Bureau of Science is legally the scientific division of the National Library but it is practically independent in organization and service. As early as 1910, it was described by competent librarians as "the best scientific collection in the Orient." It serves all scientific workers in the Philippine Islands. Its rapid growth is largely due to its late librarian, Miss Mary Polk, who served it from 1903 until her death in 1924.

The Library of the University of the Philippines, which completed a half-million dollar building in 1930, is also serving scholars outside of its immediate constituency and is thus becoming an agency of public service.

Beginning in 1914, courses in library economy were offered in the University and in 1916 a regular curriculum in library science was introduced. It has now become a college course leading to the degree of B.S. in library science. Many students have also been sent to American library schools. In 1932, 301 graduates of the University had completed the courses in the Department of Library Science.

In government libraries, under civil service rules, appointments are decided by examination. The number of successive candidates since 1903 is 75.

In 1923 the Philippine Library Association was organized and in 1929 it became a member of the International Federation of Library Associations. A general convention was held in May 1931 at the new University library building.

Among other local organizations, the most active is the Library Club of the University of the Philippines, organized in 1926, which has already accomplished much in developing library consciousness among its members and the public in general. It publishes a small organ—the *Library Mirror*. Other library periodicals have mostly been short-lived. The bulletin, mentioned above, survived only seventeen monthly issues (1895-1896). The *Philippine Library Bulletin* appeared monthly from September, 1912 to August, 1916.

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The Philippines need greatly a library survey, conducted by experts, preliminary to a general revision, amendment or repeal of existing library legislation and its replacement by a comprehensive library law providing for adequacy and continuity of financial support and adherence to the merit system of appointment.

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POLAND

BY PROFESSOR HELENA RADLIŃSKA AND

DR. HALINA KUROPATWIŃSKA, FREE UNIVERSITY

OF POLAND

POLISH libraries date from the XIth century. Of those now in existence four were founded before the XVth century, one in the XVth. The first large public library was founded in the XVIIIth century in Warsaw, through the sacrifice and financial support of the bishop Andrzej Załuski and his brother Joseph. This library was by law entitled to one copy of every book printed in Poland. About the year 1750 the collection contained 200,000 volumes. After the partition of Poland the Załuski Library was carried away to Russia, but under the terms of the Riga treaty it was partly restored in 1921.

Near the end of the XVIIIth century the library of the University of Cracow (Kraków), the so-called *Biblioteka Jagiellońska*, became to some extent a public library. In Russian Poland the status of libraries was very uncertain. Carnegie understood this, for when he was asked why he founded no libraries in Poland as he had in other European countries, he replied that he had no sufficient guarantee that such libraries would not be carried away to Russia.

Political conditions explain, too, why private libraries (including libraries owned by scientific and social organizations) have been so important. They were founded often on the basis of very old collections made during the period of political dependence for the rescue of Poland's literary treasures.

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Since the restoration of Poland's independence—in 1918—libraries have been increasing rapidly. In 1928 the National Library was founded in Warsaw, for the collection and preservation of Poland's intellectual output, of foreign material dealing with Poland, and of foreign literature indispensable for the development of Polish science. During its first five years, the National Library collected about 500,000 volumes and now ranks third, after the libraries of the University of Warsaw (756,632 volumes) and the University of Cracow (556,222 volumes). In close touch with the National Library is the Bibliographical Institute.

Statistics disclose two types of Polish libraries—scientific and popular. In general, city public libraries are a combination of the two. The term scientific library, as used here, does not lend itself to precise definition. It usually means a library for students, often in a special field. Some are general scientific collections, some are archives. All serve serious readers but they do nothing to attract new readers. Taken together, these scientific libraries, which number 451, contain upward of ten million volumes.

Public libraries have a total of 6,163,590 volumes; school libraries 7,028,000. In point of libraries possessing more than 100,000 volumes, Poland in 1930 occupied seventh place among the nations, having twenty-seven libraries above this size. With relation to her population she occupies eighth place.

The real development of Polish public libraries dates from the fourth decade of the XIXth century and is closely linked with educational development and the country's dramatic political history. Political conditions prevented the creation of a systematic network of popular libraries (already dreamed of in the 1850's) and made it necessary that all public libraries be sponsored by organizations which often appeared to have nothing in common with education.

State libraries in the German and Russian parts of Poland had denationalizing aims; for a long time the book was an instrument and a weapon. That is why in addition to the known libraries there were clandestine ones.

Poland

In German Poland the Association of Popular Reading Rooms (*Towarzystwo Czytelń Ludowych*), founded in 1880, played an important role in the development of public and popular libraries, while the Association of Popular Education (*Towarzystwo Oświaty Ludowej*), founded in 1872, was brought to ruin by the Germans. In Russian Poland a similar role was played by the society *Polska Macierz Szkolna*, and by the libraries of the Warsaw Charity Association (*Warszawskie Towarzystwo Dobroczynności*), founded in 1861. This last still exists as the Association of Polish Libraries (*Towarzystwo Bibliotek Powszechnych*).

The war ruined many national collections, especially in the Eastern part of the country. Difficult problems faced the Polish nation: to restore losses and to reorganize collections left in great disorder by Russians, Germans and Austrians. It is felt, too, to be a national duty to create new institutions to meet actual needs and to reach the level of those other countries which have not been beset by difficulties and interruptions as has Poland.

When Poland's independence was restored a projected library act was drafted by specialists. But up to this writing it has been impossible to secure parliamentary action and put it into effect. Nevertheless the library movement is active and is directed by the Ministry of Education through the Department of Adult Education, working in close contact with but independently of the Department of Libraries in the Scientific Division of the same Ministry. The work of the Ministry is directed toward providing financial support for libraries and for organizations with libraries; organizing conferences for planning library development; collecting library statistics.

The Polish Library Association is also a factor in the development of a national library policy. It brings together librarians from public and from scientific libraries. The Association founded a Center of Information which is active in two ways: (1) It gives information on books, increase of voluntary reading, etc. (It has issued an annotated catalog containing 5,000 carefully selected titles.) (2) It organizes the

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sale of library reprints, based on foreign samples and adapted to Polish needs.

There are special courses for the training of librarians, organized by the Ministry of Education, the Polish Libraries Association and, finally, in a three-year school attached to the Free University of Poland as a section of the School of Social Work.

To understand Polish library accomplishment during the short period since independence, one must glance at some statistics. There are today 8,526 public libraries (the total number of libraries in Poland is 35,000). Before 1900 there were only 314 public libraries. The following table shows the number of libraries founded in each of ten selected years:

1901	1905	1910	1915	1920	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929
21	80	78	33	251	695	786	889	827	852

It should be remembered that in proportion to the growth of libraries the number of trained librarians has increased. The level of Polish libraries is very uneven, however, in different parts of the country.

The greatest number of libraries is to be found in the southern and central districts, the smallest number in the east. This matches, roughly, the density of population.

The libraries of central Poland are admittedly the best; they have more books and more readers than any others. More than 88% of our public libraries, with 67.9% of the volumes, belong to social organizations which thus play a very important role in library development. Local government institutions own only 2.7% of existing libraries but their book stock amounts to 14.3%.

Three great social organizations with long histories play an important part in the life of Polish public libraries, though less so now than in days of dependence. They are: The Association of Popular Reading Rooms (*Towarzystwo Czytelń Ludowych*) with 765 libraries, including 51 centers for traveling libraries; The Association of Popular Schools (*Towarzystwo Szkoły Ludowej*) with 471 libraries, including 85 centers for traveling libraries; and *Polska Macierz Szkolna*, with 1251 libraries, including 37 traveling library centers.

Other organizations worth mentioning are The Association of

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Workers' Universities, with its traveling library center, and The Professional Union of Railway Workers (*Związek Zawodowy Kolejarzy*), the most important of our trade unions, founded in 1915, having its own headquarters building which houses a traveling library stock of 166,110 volumes from which collections are sent to 80 stations.

The State owns 3.4% of public libraries, and parishes and other religious communities, 3%.

Public libraries of from 1,000 to 5,000 volumes number 1,024, with over two million volumes; from 5,000 to 10,000, 109, with 747,105 volumes; over 10,000, 58, with 1,538,398. Statistics showing distribution of public libraries indicate that the percentage of rural libraries is too small when one considers the distinctly agricultural character of our country.

Public libraries serving only their immediate localities form 95.3% of the total number; those serving the community and also sending out traveling collections, 3.6%; traveling library centers, 1.1%.

In the districts of Łódź, Będzin, Warsaw and Włocławek libraries are developed furthest and most systematically.

School library standards are constantly advancing and it sometimes happens that a school library serves in the absence of a public library. There are now 23,084 public school libraries with 3,441,693 volumes. This means that 92.5% of our public schools are furnished with libraries. There are 662 libraries in professional schools; 1,322 in secondary schools; and 348 in normal schools.

The State is also promoting the spread of popular libraries for soldiers. There are now more than a thousand of these collections, totaling over half a million volumes, exclusively for soldiers. Their aim is largely educational. Moreover, the Polish White Cross from its central office despatches book collections to soldiers' clubs organized by it.

The State, from various central offices, supplies books to prisons, hospitals and other state institutions.

Poland has about 33,000,000 inhabitants on 388,390 kilometers of land. Polish libraries comprise 73.7% of all the libraries in Poland; Ukrainian, 14.4%; White-Ruthenian, 0.5%; Russian, 0.3%; Czechoslovakian, 0.1%;

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Lithuanian, 0.7%; German, 1.5%; Yiddish and Hebrew, 8.8%. The German, Russian, Yiddish and Hebrew libraries are much better supplied with books than the Ukrainian, White-Ruthenian and Lithuanian ones, the reason being that they have a richer literature and perhaps fewer financial difficulties.

The libraries of the national minorities are owned by social organizations, except for two Ukrainian libraries owned by local government board institutions. Religious communities own 39 Ukrainian, 28 Yiddish and Hebrew libraries; several individuals have large libraries in languages of the minorities. Also, in larger Polish libraries there are special collections in languages of those national minorities represented among the local population.

The leading public libraries are in the following larger towns: Bydgoszcz, Łódź, Płock, Poznań, Toruń, Wilno, Lwów, Kalisz and Włocławek. The public library of the city of Warsaw is one of the finest and best arranged. This library has been proposed as the center of a whole network of libraries for Warsaw. It was founded in 1909 from private funds, the building being specially erected for its purpose.

Access is free to all, though for the last two years, as a result of the financial crisis, a small entrance fee has been charged. The library is open 78 hours a week and every day except Sundays and holidays. At the end of the year 1929 it contained 204,486 volumes. Its budget is 294,067 zloty¹ yearly. The lending department makes a small charge; it is open 24 hours a day, 6 days a week, contains 17,190 volumes, has 2,873 readers and issues 27,000 books a year.

The Warsaw Public Library has several departments in different parts of the city and a reading room for children which serves as a model for other libraries in Poland. It helps in training librarians for this type of work.

It is not surprising that the percentage of modern public library buildings in Poland is small. All local and state authority has been directed toward the building of schools and government institutions.

¹ The zloty is worth a little more than eleven cents at present.—*Editor*.

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PUERTO RICO

BY LUIS O'NEILL

LIBRARIAN OF THE CARNEGIE LIBRARY

OF PUERTO RICO

ALTHOUGH the library movement in its most modern aspects may be considered as including in Puerto Rico only the Carnegie Library, the idea of public libraries and enthusiasm therefore are not new in the island.

In the first quarter of the XIXth century there already existed in San Juan the library of the Dominican Convent. The Economic Society of Friends of the Country possessed a select library, some of the volumes of which are now in the Puertorican Atheneum and others in the Carnegie Library. Alejandro Tapia y Rivera and other men of his day, lovers of learning, founded the Reading Cabinet in Ponce in 1870. The Bar Association, the Supreme Court and the Bishopric always had good special libraries. The same is true of the present Supreme Court and of the Puertorican Atheneum.

The first municipal library in the island was founded in Mayaguez in 1873. On March 15, 1874, it opened its doors to the public, the first librarian being Don Francisco del Castillo.

The Municipal Library of San Juan was inaugurated October 16, 1880. Of Don Ramón Santaella, the first librarian, Fernández Juncos says: "This gentleman took up the task of collecting books with such enthusiasm that he gave no peace to the inhabitants of San Juan and nearby towns until they voluntarily rendered bibliographic service. Amusing anecdotes of the diligent work of Santaella are still related."

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The Municipal Library of Ponce was founded in 1890 with the books of the aforesaid Reading Cabinet, the private collection of Don Miguel Rosich, and other purchased or donated volumes.

But the most worthy effort made in this island and the one having the most important consequences, commenced with the Insular Library established under that name in 1903. It was installed in quarters in the old Provincial Deputies Building, the one where the Department of Agriculture and Labor and the Museum of Puerto Rico are at present located.

Under the wise direction of the distinguished master of Puertorican letters, Dr. Manuel Fernández Juncos, efficiently aided by a young American, Sloan D. Watkins by name, and encouraged in his efforts by the support and enthusiasm of a noble character, James L. Dunlevy, the Insular Library made in its progress a true change of front and was converted into a modern institution whose activities were such as pertain to institutions of that class throughout the world.

All the books were either classified or the classification had been revised, for the former librarian, Mr. Louis Weisberg, or his predecessor, Mr. R. A. Van Middledyck, or both of them (the latter being the author of a history of Puerto Rico) had made a classification and catalogue which, if not wholly utilized was without doubt an effort worthy of mention. The books were already in free circulation when Dr. Fernández Juncos and Mr. Watkins embarked on their task.

The books were classified, or the classification revised, according to the Dewey system and were catalogued following the Cutter system of a dictionary catalogue prepared on cards, the greater part of which were furnished by the Congressional Library at Washington, D. C. These cards were prepared for books in English, and their general plan was followed by the cataloguer of the Insular Library in preparing them for books in Spanish.

Next came the endeavors of Mr. Dunlevy, Agustín Navarrete (then trustees of the Insular Library), and Dr. Manuel Fernández Juncos, who sought the personal influence of ex-Governor Arthur Yager for the purpose of getting a Carnegie Library for Puerto Rico.

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A most valuable aid in this respect was rendered by Capt. R. J. Van Deusen, then private secretary of Governor Yager.

These efforts, and those previously made by Dr. Francisco del Valle Atilas and other Puertoricans were successful, thanks to the joint action of Governor Yager, a personal friend of Mr. Carnegie, and of our Legislative Assembly, then presided over by Messrs. José de Diego and Luis Sanchez Morales, who formed part of the library committee who negotiated the matter of the new building, for the construction of which—entrusted to Ramón Carbia, a Puertorican engineer of note—the Carnegie Corporation of New York donated the sum of \$100,000. The building stands in a lot measuring 6,000 square meters and the official inauguration of the Carnegie Library took place on July 27, 1916.

Story telling classes have been established for children, as well as a system of traveling libraries and postal book service whereby books are sent to all parts of the island, upon payment of postage in the latter case, by the applicants. In this way the Library has over 5,000 books in circulation outside of San Juan. The recent cyclone did considerable harm to our traveling library system, many books in these collections having been lost or badly damaged.

The library personnel is composed of 20 employees, including the librarian and the janitors. At present it has nearly 50,000 volumes, and is used widely by both Spanish and English speaking people, the average number of visitors being about 200 daily, and the average yearly circulation, including books issued at the library to visiting patrons, those sent through parcel post and those circulated through our traveling libraries, being about 85,900.

Next to the Carnegie Library in importance there are the municipal libraries of San Juan, Ponce, Mayagüez, Yauco (possessing its own building especially constructed), and others of minor rank. Public reading rooms also exist in different towns of the island, supported out of municipal funds. There are, besides, in Guayama and Fajardo, libraries called municipal school libraries because their collections or service, or both, partake more of the nature of a school library, although they are supported out of municipal funds, no legislation having been

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enacted levying a municipal school tax, wherefore we may technically consider them as municipal libraries. There are also some school libraries established by the Department of Education in several towns of the island.

Although these latter are scarcely true modern libraries as yet, an active and optimistic spirit is noticeable on the part of those entrusted with their management.

There are also subscription libraries like the Miller Book Shop, at San Juan, and the Librería Rojas, at Santurce, where many good books both in the English and Spanish languages are used by a considerable number of readers.

To make the operation of the public library more effective as regards the culture of the island, the Board of Trustees of the Carnegie Library has under consideration a plan to associate the municipal and school libraries of the different towns of the island with the Carnegie Library as distributing stations of the latter.

SOUTH AFRICA

BY M. M. STIRLING,

LIBRARIAN, STATE LIBRARY, PRETORIA

IN ORDER to understand properly the library position in South Africa, it would be necessary to deal with the history of the country, its physical features, the unequal distribution and fluctuating nature of its population, and the psychology of its people to an extent which space, apart from other considerations, forbids.

The population of South Africa consists of about $8\frac{1}{2}$ million people, one and one half million whites and seven million Bantu and coloured people. The area of the country is 472,347 square miles. The country is divided into four provinces, viz. the Cape, 276,966 square miles, the Transvaal, 110,450 square miles, the Orange Free State, 49,647 square miles and Natal, 35,284 square miles. The central government takes charge of all larger affairs, including higher education, and the four provincial administrations have charge of primary and secondary education, local government, etc.

There are two national libraries in the country—the State Library at Pretoria, and the South African Public Library at Cape Town. These are under the jurisdiction of the central government.

The other public libraries of the country, of which there are 227, are nominally controlled by the administrations of the provinces in which they are situated. The provincial administrations are supposed to pay annual grants to libraries, but the only province which does so is the Cape. In addition, municipal councils are authorised to con-

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tribute to the support of public libraries—in the Transvaal, the Orange Free State and Natal to any extent, and in the Cape to the extent of 1½ per cent per annum of the total municipal rate.

There are only five free municipal libraries, of which four are in the Transvaal and one in the Orange Free State.

The Cape provincial grants to libraries are made on the pound for pound basis with a maximum of £150 per annum, calculated on the average subscriptions received for three years; thus, a library with 150 members, subscribing £1 apiece, receives a grant of £150—while another library with 300 members subscribing £1 apiece gets precisely the same grant. Naturally, the smaller the library the better off it is financially. Three quarters of the provincial grant must be spent on the purchase of books, and when travelling in the Cape one is struck with the excellent libraries of small towns and villages compared with those of most of the larger communities. Municipal grants to libraries in the Cape are so poor as to be negligible.

In the other provinces, probably owing to the entire lack of provincial support, municipal support of libraries is very much better and as already remarked five municipalities support free libraries. That is not to say, however, that municipal support is good or that the majority of municipal councils support libraries. For the comparatively few town councils which do support libraries the average contribution is well under one shilling (25c.) per annum per head of the population.

The majority of our public libraries being organized on a subscription basis without proper provision for municipal and government support, it follows that they are patronised chiefly by the well-to-do citizens.

Most libraries have country members who subscribe for their books, but rural service is not systematically organised. The great stumbling block to organised rural service is that there is no library unit (for money raising purposes) between the municipality and the province. County councils do not exist. Two years ago the Germiston Library proposed a free rural service for the Transvaal with headquarters in Germiston. The scheme found favour with the provincial administra-

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tion and was started with six country schools as rural centres and the schoolmasters as honorary librarians. There are now 13 of these school centres with a membership of over 1500 readers. It was hoped gradually to extend the system to provide for 90,000 readers. A year ago, however, the provincial administration, as an economy measure, withdrew financial support, and, unless the strenuous efforts to have the provincial grant restored are successful, the scheme is doomed to extinction.

During the past few years a considerable measure of library cooperation has been achieved in the Transvaal, the Free State and Natal—many small libraries being linked up with and drawing their supplies from the State Library and the libraries of Germiston, Bloemfontein and Durban respectively. In addition, Germiston Library supplies some 80 schools with school libraries. This is the only school library system in the country.

In 1928, as a result of the visit to South Africa of Milton J. Ferguson of the United States, and Septimus A. Pitt of Scotland, a library conference was held at Bloemfontein. The conference outlined a scheme for a free national library system, comprising one central library, six secondary centres, many subsidiary centres and so on down to agencies and delivery stations at police posts, post offices, etc. The first step in this comprehensive scheme has just been taken, owing to the generosity of the Carnegie Corporation of New York. The Union Government, the Carnegie Corporation, the Pretoria city council and the State Library Board agreed that the State Library (hitherto organized on a subscription basis) should become entirely free to students throughout the Union as well as to citizens of Pretoria. The Library is being financed by the government to the extent of £2000 a year, by a municipal grant of £2500 per annum and by the annual interest on a sum of \$125,000 made over by the Carnegie Corporation.

Until two years ago, no library service for Bantu and coloured peoples existed. The majority of these people, indeed, are still unable to read in any language. Owing to the benefactions of the Carnegie Corporation, library services have now been successfully inaugurated in the Transvaal and Natal and are administered respectively by the

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Borough Library of Durban, and the Germiston Library. Similar arrangements are now being pushed forward in the Cape and the Orange Free State.

One of the most important events in South African library history was the formation two years ago of the South African Library Association. In spite of immense distances and the consequent impossibility of holding frequent meetings, the Association has made good headway. Two winter library schools have already been held and a comprehensive university diploma course in librarianship is at present under consideration. It has also been decided to publish a quarterly library journal, the first number of which will appear towards the middle of this year.

SPAIN

FROM "LA BIBLIOTECA POPOLARE MODERNA,"

BY ETTORE FABIETTI

TRANSLATED BY EMILY V. D. MILLER, EDITOR OF PUBLICATIONS,
AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION

MANY times ministries have concerned themselves with the necessity and with the means of instituting popular libraries in Spain, and of getting them to functioning, but the actual results do not correspond with their good resolutions. Before the war it was reputed that there were 678 libraries, with 114,000 volumes; but the figure does not appear credible and we do not know from what source it is derived because no statistics existed. In 1878 the government acquired 100,000 volumes to get school libraries under way, but no one knows what became of them.

About 1905 the university extension movement (the popular university), which manifested itself also in the Iberian peninsula, developed in the direction of the diffusion of libraries. After the war, the *Junta para ampliacion de Estudios*, founded and presided over by Ramon y Cajal, operated with tremendous zeal all over the country, by means of a host of youthful students, who must thus have paid back by means of a socially useful work the benefits and the help which they must have received from the *Junta* in their studies.

Many popular libraries were founded by them in the Asturias, without means, with the sole strength of enthusiasm and of apostleship, and with the sole resource of voluntary subscriptions. Their method was simply this—when they arrived in a little center of agricultural workers, in the most neglected Spanish regions, they inaugurated a modest but

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carefully chosen and highly practical library, which would become the center of other cultural activities. The reading room became, in fact, also a discussion center, to attract the workmen who were readers and the country people; once there they were inevitably drawn to the readers' seats. Read the history of one of these little circulating libraries: that of Avilès, founded in 1919; of Gangas de Onis, created in 1918; of Sindicato Agricolo de Corao; of Zuarca; of Llanes, even of those only a few years old, and you will be much moved. At Mieres and at Sama de Langreo, two mineral centers of dense population, the work of the libraries was received with enthusiasm; the little rooms could not, in those first days, contain all the seekers after literature; the late arrivals, surprised, formed a queue, waiting for vacant places. Saturday evening, in almost all the popular libraries, there was a reading, with comment, from some book, the reading usually done by a student.

And since, now, the students did not suffice, the provincial House of Deputies of the Asturias voted the sum of 7500 pesetas to prepare, by a special course, the future directors of the popular libraries, which are supervised by the popular university (Ateneo Obrero) of Gijon, the most important industrial center of the Asturias.

The provincial House of Deputies of Barcelona, giving an account, in its *Popular libraries annual* of 1929, of the eleven libraries founded in Catalonia (five at Barcelona and six in the province) in the last twelve years, with most modern features, relates that in that year about 81,000 volumes were lent for home reading and nearly 147,000 for reading at the libraries, to 8,741 registered borrowers, children and adults. [Catalonia is treated separately in the latter part of this chapter].

Not American figures, of course, but evidence of persevering and co-ordinated effort to penetrate into a country which is now opening up, in its numerous classes, to the influx of modern thought.

From more recent initiative, let us cite a library opened in the public garden of Madrid, for the mothers and children who wish to read in the open.

In short, Spain gives evidence of being conscious of the importance which in a civil country can be assumed by a public reading service

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organized along modern lines, and in Catalonia, at least, it has begun to put itself into the current of the times.

CATALONIA

BY SEÑOR JORDI RUBIÓ, DIRECCIÓ TÈCNICA DE BIBLIOTEQUES

POPULARS DE LA GENERALITAT DE CATALUNYA, BARCELONA

TRANSLATED BY ELIZABETH H. BROOKS,

SWARTHMORE, PA.

CATALONIA is a district of the Spanish Republic, to which parliament has just granted autonomy. It has a population of 2,800,000, and an extent of 32,196 square kilometers.

The State formerly supported in it four provincial libraries in the four capitals of Barcelona, Tarragona, Lerida and Gerona. The library of Barcelona is at the same time the library of the only university in Catalonia. These four libraries are made up principally of old collections of books from the convents which were suppressed in 1837. On this account, and also because they do not permit lending, or even keep catalogs at the disposal of the public, they do not correspond to the modern type of library. These libraries, on account of the statute of autonomy which has just been voted by the Spanish Cortez, will henceforth be under the government of the district.

In Catalonia the State did not take the initiative in founding public libraries. Although in its general budget there is found an appropriation for a public library in Barcelona, this project has not as yet been realized, and its personnel is assigned to the university library of that city.

The establishment of public libraries in Catalonia was begun by the so-called *Mancomunitat de Catalunya*, an attempt at regional government which functioned between 1914 and 1925, when it was dissolved

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by the dictatorship of Primo de Rivera. It is, therefore, a very recent movement and because of the events through which Catalonian politics have passed in these latter years, it has not been able to develop rapidly.

In 1915 the Assembly of the *Mancomunitat de Catalunya* approved of a project for the organization of public libraries in that region together with the creation of a school for librarians, in order to prepare the personnel to administer them. From this plan the movement started with a rapidity not equalled in the rest of Spain, and has since developed in Catalonia in the field of public libraries.

The libraries were built by the *Mancomunitat* government, but the land was granted by the municipal government of each locality, which had to furnish also light, water and heat, together with a small sum for maintenance. Every year bids were called for from towns that desired to have a library, and, according to the economic possibilities which the budget offered, the towns were chosen whose offers were considered most favorable.

Between 1918 and 1922 eight public libraries were built and inaugurated in Catalonia, supported and endowed by the *Mancomunitat* under the above terms. These were in Valls (10,700 inhabitants), Olot (10,250), Sallent (4,650), Borges Blanques (4,400), Canet de Mar (3,650), Vendrell (4,500), Pineda (2,180) and Figueres (13,200). All were installed in separate buildings, constructed according to a given plan, simple and economical, surrounded by grounds. Each contains a reading room with stack room fairly accessible, an office for the librarian, and a lecture-room furnished likewise with book-shelves.

When the *Mancomunitat* was dissolved, the work of the public libraries continued and they were allotted to the four congressional districts of Catalonia where they were founded. Although the administrative unity which they formed had been broken, they continued to preserve the same organization.

From 1923 to 1931 the following libraries were opened: Granoller (9,200 inhabitants), Tarragona (28,000), Manresa (27,300), Vich (13,350), Ulldecona (6,780) and Calella (6,200).

When the *Generalitat de Catalunya* was established in 1931 at the

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time of the foundation of the Spanish Republic, the libraries of the old region founded by the *Mancomunitat* or by the Catalanian Congressional Districts again formed a single organism governed by the same rules and under the same administration.

To the fourteen libraries already functioning, there were added very soon those of Cervera and of Vilafranca del Panades, also the first of ten district libraries in the city of Barcelona.

The public libraries of the *Generalitat* constitute a single organism ruled by a central office. In this office the following services exist: a general catalog of all books in the libraries under its charge, a standard list for their initial book-stock and a depository of books and technical material for distribution to the libraries. In this central office statistics are compiled, plans for libraries are formulated, the work of binding is taken care of, and technical and administrative questions are studied.

All the libraries are in constant communication with the directors of the central office, which inspects their work and is the bond of communication between the Minister of Education and the libraries under that department.

The central office has published an annual report since 1922, containing technical instructions for operating the libraries. The official rules which refer to them, and their annual reports, together with statistical résumés and articles about various questions related to literature, give greater interest to this publication which is the only one of its kind in Spain.

The central office has charge of book-purchase, which enables this to be carried on more economically and provides for wiser selection, although it takes into account always as far as possible the special demands of each library. It keeps in mind the principle that libraries must carry on a work of culture and that they do not fulfill their mission if they follow blindly and without interest the taste of the great mass of readers.

A stock of 1,500 to 2,500 volumes, according to the importance of each locality, forms the nucleus of each public library. When they have once been opened to the public they receive new books periodically.

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For the purchase of these as well as of reviews and periodicals, they receive 3,000 pesetas for each library. They do not subscribe to political reviews. By far the largest section of the books is made up of imaginative literature, and next to that in importance come the sections of history, biography, geography, and travel. However, a well supplied section of works on art is not lacking. Translations of the classics, ancient and modern, good scientific manuals, works on philosophy and sociology, grammars, dictionaries, and some encyclopedias complete the resources of the libraries. Excessively worn books and those which are out of date are eliminated.

Books are bought in both the Catalanian dialect and in Castilian. Since French is fairly well known in Catalonia all libraries subscribe to reviews and publications in that language.

All public libraries have a children's section. The books which form it are grouped in a special bookcase. It has not been possible so far to arrange for special rooms, but, as the children are accustomed to come to the libraries at different hours from the adults, this does not present any great difficulty.

The children come in great numbers to the libraries, and already the influence which these exercise on their education is evident in developing a love of literature.

The public libraries are open five to six hours on work-days, the hours being divided between the morning and afternoon, and two hours in the morning on holidays. The longest reading time comes in the afternoon, in order that laborers, on leaving their work, can find the libraries open sufficiently long to be able to use them.

Everybody without exception has the right to use the libraries and to remain in the reading room, and men and women of all social classes take advantage of this privilege.

There is home use of books in all public libraries. Adult readers living in the town can take books home without any further requirement than to sign a card pledging themselves to respect the rules and to identify themselves. Books are lent for a period of eight days subject to recall. Encyclopedias and dictionaries necessary for reference work

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are excluded from lending; also the current magazines. Children can also borrow books if their parents or those in charge of them take the responsibility. However, the permission to take books home is granted only to children who have proved that they know how to fulfill the requirements of the library.

All the libraries are allowed to lend each other books. At the same time all are considered, for such purposes, as branch libraries of the Library of Catalonia to which they direct their requests. The sending of books from the Library of Catalonia to the public libraries is without charge to the person making the request, and the expense is divided between the sending and receiving library.

Public libraries are beginning likewise to organize the lending of books among the surrounding towns. The books are in this case ordinarily deposited in the schools and teachers have charge of their circulation. A case of books is lent for a month. The circulation service will probably greatly increase in the years to come, to judge from the good results thus far accomplished.

Periodically the libraries send out reading lists on various subjects of current interest, to their readers and to the clubs, social centers and societies of the town. Likewise, they are sent to the other libraries.

The books are cataloged and put on the shelves according to the decimal classification of Brussels, with the exception of fiction, which is arranged alphabetically by author and title.

Catalonian libraries have also an alphabetical catalog of authors and another of titles for novels and plays. The public uses the catalog very little and prefers to examine the shelves directly, which is easily understood, considering the free access offered. It should be taken into account also that up to the present no one of our public libraries contains more than 7000 volumes.

The staff of each library is composed of women and consists of a director, an assistant director, and a subdirector. The two first must possess a degree from the government library school. The salary upon entering is at present 3500 pesetas annually for the director and 3000 pesetas for the sub, or assistant, director, with a five-year increase of 500

Spain

pesetas. The positions are all obtained by competitive examination.

A library school was founded at Barcelona in 1915 by the *Mancomunitat* and has continued with some changes until today when it is supported by the *Generalitat*. Two hundred and twenty-three students have taken courses, of whom 106 have obtained degrees. The graduates are the only ones who can serve in the public libraries, and in certain positions in other libraries of the *Generalitat*. They are likewise sought for to take charge of many libraries in other institutions, and not a few act as private librarians.

The library school offers a three-year course, the last year being dedicated to practical work. An entrance examination is required. The subjects taught are the following: History of civilization, History of the sciences, History of the book and principles of paleography, History of art, General literature, Catalonian literature, Spanish literature, Management of libraries, Bibliography, Selection of books, Children's literature, and the Restoration of books.

The provincial government has approved the following bases for the organization of libraries. When the statute of autonomy approved by the Spanish Parliament begins to function they will be divided into the following groups:

1. Central libraries of Catalonia with the character of a national institution and the full legal personnel.
2. Libraries of university institutions and of higher studies.
3. Libraries of a secondary type in institutions where instruction of this grade is carried on.
4. Forty-five public libraries in towns of more than 6000 inhabitants which do not possess those of a secondary type. Each one of these, in addition to its permanent collection, will possess 5000 circulating volumes with which it will furnish in monthly instalments the neighboring towns.
5. Reading rooms for children in all the towns.

Not to mention the many libraries which function in social centers and individual societies for the use of their members, those must not be forgotten which on account of their greater interest and importance

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are carried on under the savings bank institutions in Catalonia.

The Fund for Old Age Pensions is the most powerful of these organizations, and since 1923 it has established public libraries in some of the towns of Catalonia and the Balearic Islands. Its technical management is very similar to that of the provincial government. However, its libraries do not allow lending. The central office for book-purchase is in Barcelona. The libraries which it sustains are the following:

Founded in 1923

Santa Coloma de Farnes (4,700 inhabitants)

Founded in 1927

Igualada (12,500 inhabitants)

Founded in 1928

Les y Viella, small towns of less than 1,000 inhabitants which are allowed a proportional number of books

Founded in 1929

Soller (Balears) (10,347 inhabitants)

Inca (Balears) (10,547 inhabitants)

Founded in 1930

Lerida (38,000 inhabitants)

Manacor (Balears) (15,760 inhabitants)

Lluchmajor (Balears) (9,868 inhabitants)

Ibiza (Balears) (8,500 inhabitants)

Badalona (27,580 inhabitants)

Berga (5,600 inhabitants)

Vich (13,350 inhabitants)

Founded in 1931

Mahon (Balears) (18,679 inhabitants)

Palma (Balears) (79,709 inhabitants)

Felanitx (Balears) (11,708 inhabitants)

Ciudadela (Balears) (91,712 inhabitants)

Alaior (Balears) (5,034 inhabitants)

Founded in 1932

Montblanch (4,700 inhabitants)

Manresa (27,300 inhabitants)

Vilafranca del Panades (8,580 inhabitants)

These libraries now have a supply of between 2000 and 4000 volumes

Spain

each, according to their importance. The library of Igualada has more than 5000 volumes.

The Savings Bank Company of Sabadell (45,607 inhabitants) since 1928 has supported a very important library accessible to all, and lends its books.

In Mataro (22,885 inhabitants), since 1929 there has been another library, under the management of the Savings Bank Company of the locality, which, however, does not permit lending.

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SWEDEN

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THE earliest known mention of a Swedish library with public library characteristics occurs in the year 1800, at Lekeryd in the province of Småland.

In the 1830's and 1840's a strong movement developed in one of the central provinces of Sweden, Värmland, with the object of establishing parish libraries on the English model. As early as 1836 a list of books suitable for parish libraries was published.

Even at this time there were some attempts to organize joint study work (reading aloud and discussions) in cooperation with the libraries.

The public elementary education act of 1842, in which it was laid down that attendance at school should be obligatory for all children, also contained an injunction to the clergy to encourage the establishment of parish libraries "for maintaining the knowledge acquired in the schools and particularly for the advancement of a true Christian education." The committee, entrusted with the preparatory work in the *Riksdag* (session), laid great stress on the point that not only school libraries but also parish libraries formed "a necessary supplement to school education itself."

After a couple of decades libraries had been established in more than half the parishes of the country. In 1868 there were 1437 such libraries. For a long time afterwards the development of public libraries ran

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parallel to that of elementary schools. When for instance government school inspectors were instituted in the sixties, the inspection of the parish libraries formed part of their duties.

At the close of the 19th century the effects of industrialism, combined with the increasing democratic tendencies of society, gave an impulse to a stronger development of the library movement. The earlier parish libraries had catered principally to the rural districts, but this revival concentrated on the towns in order to meet the educational needs of the working class. At this time the leaders of the development were certain association libraries and privately-supported libraries in the larger towns. These were in principle open to all citizens though they catered mainly to the working class. Among these libraries is to be noted the Dickson public library in Gothenburg, founded in 1861 on the English model, which in 1897 obtained a building of its own, the first public library building in Scandinavia. Certain types of public libraries concentrated their activities on special social groups or interests, as for instance the workers' libraries.

About this time several temperance libraries had developed, particularly those belonging to the International Order of Good Templars. This library activity was connected with the study-circle movement, started at the same time. From the beginning the study-circle libraries not only aimed to procure the literature necessary for the work of the circles, but also to serve as public libraries to a certain extent.

After the foundation of the Workers' Educational Association in 1912 several of the former workers' libraries were reorganized, and a great number of new ones were established in connection with the study-circle movement among the workers.

In 1905 the public libraries had aroused interest in such widely different strata of society that they were accorded the first state grants. The maximum was fixed at 75 Swedish crowns¹ annually per library. The grants amounted in the first year to 32,000 crowns, distributed among 634 libraries. Since then a continual development of the public library movement has taken place. The influence of English and

¹ The pre-war value of the crown was about 25c.

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American public libraries has been of the greatest importance to the increase of this activity. Strong impulses came to Sweden during the first decades of the 20th century, directly or through the neighboring countries of Denmark and Norway.

The state grants were of course of the very greatest importance to this development. In 1912 materially improved regulations for these grants were adopted. At the same time the government appointed two library advisers to give advice and information concerning public and school libraries, handle matters connected with the state grants and state control and edit suitable catalogues of books. These advisers were first directly subordinate to the ministry of public worship and education, but they have later been transferred to the Central Board of Education.

In the meantime the public library movement continued steadily to increase. Book stocks also underwent frequent renewal with continued improvement in quality.

The resources of the libraries, however, were as a rule very small. A so-called "adult-education committee" was appointed whose duties included the task of drawing up a scheme of altered regulations for the state grants to the public libraries.

This scheme was completed in 1924 and was to a very great extent built on experience gained through the library law adopted in Denmark two years before. The scheme was made the base of a proposition to the Riksdag of 1929, which led to a revision of the regulations for state grants.

In accordance with these regulations state grants may be made to public libraries, whether belonging to a community or an association. Only one public library (with branches) in each community may receive a state grant. In addition to this, grants may also be given to libraries connected with large associations for public library activity in connection with study-circle work.

In order to be allotted a state grant each library must procure a corresponding local contribution, "the local grant." Every library fulfilling certain general regulations receives a so-called "first state grant,"

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to which may in some cases be added grants for libraries fulfilling higher demands.

In the case of all smaller libraries receiving local grants of up to 400 crowns (the former maximum for state grants), the first state grant reaches the same amount as the local grant. For libraries receiving larger local grants the first state grant varies on a falling scale; e.g., a library with a local grant of 750 crowns receives a first state grant of 600 crowns, or 80 per cent. All libraries with more than 4,000 crowns in local grants receive 50 per cent, but not to exceed the maximum amounts mentioned below, 10,000 or 7,000 crowns.

Among the general conditions for receiving state grants are free book-loans, suitable premises and regular opening hours—at least once a week.

To all libraries receiving a first state grant that does not reach the amount of the local grant may be accorded one or two additional grants. These are balanced in such a way that even the larger libraries may receive a state grant equal to the amount of the local grant, within a certain maximum limit (7,000, in some cases even 10,000 crowns).

National unions for library work in connection with study circles may receive state grants, provided the union has at least 20,000 members and expenses for library purposes amounted to at least 6,000 crowns in the previous year.

Every library connected with such a union receives a first state grant in accordance with a falling scale and, if the conditions are fulfilled, certain additional grants in analogy with those to public libraries.

Certain regulations have been provided to bring about cooperation between different libraries in a community. An endeavour to provide a guarantee against unnecessary disunion in library work has been realized in the stipulation that the state grant to library work in one community shall under otherwise similar conditions be the same, if there is only one public library or a number of study circle libraries in addition. Thus the maximum state grant refers to the entire library activity of the community and not to each separate library as such. This maximum has been fixed at 10,000 crowns.

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It is stipulated that regular conferences between the librarians of the same community shall be arranged to discuss lists of books for purchase, the printing of common catalogues and other matters where cooperation may be desirable.

An auxiliary to the local libraries in the country has been carried into effect by turning a number of well-stocked town libraries into central libraries.

The fundamental principles of the Swedish central library organization, decided upon in 1929-30, are approximately the following. In every one of the 24 counties of Sweden (administrative areas with 250,000 inhabitants on an average) a public library is established as central library for the county. This library has to supply the local libraries within the county by direct and free loans of books, needed for study and not to be found in the local libraries, by sending out travelling libraries and by giving advice and instruction in library matters. In order to be accepted as a central library a library must possess a reading room with an approved collection of reference books, open to the public on suitable hours every week-day morning and afternoon. Its entire book stock must be satisfactory in extent and composition, and the librarian and staff must possess the necessary qualifications. The duties of central libraries have been fixed in the following way:

Persons living within the county may borrow books needed for study from the central library either directly or through a local library. The loans are free and the central library pays carriage one way. This includes all non-fiction and foreign fiction in the original language, but Swedish fiction only when the borrower is studying literary history, in which case he is allowed free loans of editions of the authors that he is studying. If a book required for study is not in the central library it will be procured from another library.

The travelling libraries are sent not only to libraries in receipt of state grants, but also to associations and individual borrowers. They are as a rule made up for each issue with regard to the wishes of the borrower. Carriage is paid one way, but, the central library may charge a fee on a scale approved by the central board of education. For use

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in the travelling libraries every central library has a separate book stock. For the purchase and binding of books for this supply at least 3,000 crowns must be used annually at every central library.

"Advice and instruction in library matters" must be furnished by the central library. This means that the central library is bound on request to render free assistance to public libraries with less than 2,000 crowns in state grant and to hospital libraries within the county, by going through book-order lists or making suggestions for book-purchase, by directing and examining classification and cataloguing and by giving general advice. Even the larger public libraries in receipt of state grants, and also school libraries, may receive advice and instruction if not too extensive. The central librarian arranges annual conferences between the librarians of the libraries with state grants within the county.

The inspection of public and study-circle libraries, and of hospital libraries, which now devolves on government school inspectors, will soon be transferred to the central librarians.

It is stipulated that the central librarians shall meet once a year with the central board or its library advisers, in order to discuss matters regarding central library activities.

Two new central libraries are to be established annually until the central library organization is complete.

In 1931 the maximum for elementary schools was raised to 1,000 crowns per school district.

Because of the present depression, the state grants were last year somewhat reduced and the formation of new central libraries was for the present discontinued.

In recent years the lending departments of the public libraries have been thoroughly modernized. In that respect great importance must be attributed to the catalogues of books suitable for libraries; these have been prepared by the library advisers. From 1913 to 1929 all the libraries received their grants in form of books and not in cash, and this is still the rule with most of the smaller libraries. These books must be chosen from the above-mentioned catalogues, which now contain in all

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more than 10,000 titles. As with the *A.L.A. catalog*, there are short, informative annotations, written and signed by experts.

Open access is practised in almost all the libraries that have been re-organized in later years.

More special reading rooms have lately been arranged in the libraries. Contrary to earlier practice, when the reading rooms often contained little but newspapers, they now in most places contain modern reference collections. The new conditions regulating special additional grants have already played an important part in this development.

In the last 20 years special junior departments have been provided in a number of places. These cooperate if possible with schools, and in some places they start courses in the use of reference books, arrange story hours, etc. These departments help the young in forming a habit of visiting the library.

Libraries with buildings of their own are found in comparatively few towns. The principal library building belongs to the town library of Stockholm, which was erected in 1924-27 and there are a few others in towns of moderate size. In other cases buildings contain accommodations for other institutions beside the library, for instance, lecture- or concert-halls, theatres and museums.

The catalogues in use are as a rule the alphabetic author and title catalogue and the classified catalogue. Many libraries have lately included also a subject catalogue. Practically every catalogue is written on cards of international size. Catalogue cards are printed by the town library of Stockholm for its own use and (from 1933) by the General Swedish Library Association for many other libraries.

The books are as a rule arranged according to a system of classification specially prepared for the Swedish public libraries by experts appointed by the General Swedish Library Association.

All public libraries, and the majority of school libraries, are allowed a discount of 20 per cent on current book-prices by the booksellers.

For the training of the library staff an annual state grant has been allowed for several years. At the start only short courses were arranged for librarians of the smaller libraries. In about ten years nearly 1,000

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persons have attended different library courses of this kind. Since 1926 longer courses of five months have been arranged every second year. These are intended for persons taking up library work as a profession.

At these courses about half the time is given to information about books and the rest to library technique.

The competence of librarians in certain cases is determined by state examination held when a library receives more than 2,000 crowns as a state grant and in some cases when additional grants are in question.

The present extent of the Swedish library movement is shown by the following table, containing the latest figures that have been prepared.

	Number of libraries 1930	Number of volumes Jan. 1, 1930	Number of borrowers 1929	Number of issues 1929 ¹
Public libraries:				
Town ..	94	943,000	186,000	3,541,000
Rural . . .	1,143	962,000	144,000	1,121,000
School libraries ..	1,492	1,177,000	285,000	3,180,000
Hospital libraries ..	50	26,000	11,000	86,000
Study-circle libraries	3,530	965,000	—	1,249,000

About one eighth of the inhabitants of Sweden are registered borrowers in these libraries and each of these borrows twelve volumes a year on an average. To this figure may be added issues in the reading rooms. If the loans were distributed throughout the total population the average would be 1½ loans per inhabitant. The local grants amount to nearly 3 million Swedish crowns, the state grants to between 800,000 and 900,000 crowns.

The rural districts with about 4 million inhabitants have about 4 million issues, the towns with barely 2 million inhabitants about 5 million issues.

The largest book stock is found in the town library of Stockholm (about ¼ million volumes). Then follow two libraries with about 100,000 volumes each.

The budget of the town library of Stockholm is about 1,000,000 crowns for the current year. In some other towns with well developed

¹ The figures for the number of issues refer to the working year of 1928-29.

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library activities the revenues of the libraries amount to between 1.5 and 2 crowns per inhabitant, which figure has rarely been exceeded.

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ORGANISATIONS

Bibliotekskonsulenterna i Skolöverstyrelsen. (The library advisers of the Central board of education.) Handverkargatan 29, Stockholm. Förste bibliotekskonsulent: Dr. K. Tynell. Andre bibliotekskonsulenter: H. Kuntzel och Greta Linder.

Sveriges allmänna biblioteksörening. (The General Swedish library association.) Chairman: Dr. A. Grape, Uppsala (Chief Librarian of the University library of Uppsala). Secretary: Dr. F. Hjelmqvist, Executive member, Sveavägen 73, Stockholm (Chief Librarian of the town library of Stockholm).

SWITZERLAND

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LIBRARIES for the people are an achievement of modern times. The old city-republics of Switzerland, with their dominating ruling class, had no place for them. The body of burghers was provided for by the research town libraries which grew up between the 16th and the 18th centuries. Still less were conditions favorable in the rural cantons, for, although their popular legislative assemblies (*Landsgemeinden*) were purely democratic, the ultimate decisions were still in the hands of an upper class.

In the course of the 18th century, under the influence of the so-called *Aufklärung*, the need for a more comprehensive culture made itself felt here and there outside of the ruling classes, and led to the formation of libraries to supply the need. The earliest recorded is that created at the beginning of the 18th century by the village of Préverenges, near Lausanne in the Canton of Vaud, at that time still subject to Berne. In the second half of the 18th century, smaller country towns also founded libraries which aimed at being general educational institutions rather than collections of learned books.

Under the pressure of growing political agitation, special reading institutes were opened in the larger towns by the side of the learned libraries, their aim being to keep in touch with current events, to provide topical literature and to spread political news. Among the subject population of the rural districts, reading societies were founded which

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surreptitiously fostered tendencies subversive to the government.

In 1798, the French Revolution unloosed political storms in Switzerland as elsewhere. They first subsided in 1803 with the formation of new cantons out of old subject districts and with thorough-going changes in the old cantons, where the privileges of the towns were reduced. In the new cantons, the new life made itself felt in the foundation of cantonal libraries which, though serving the purpose of research in a general way, also had a wider circle of readers in view. On the whole, however, a certain lack of enterprise is noticeable until the July Revolution of 1830, which gave impetus to a radical reformation of political life in the cantons, and to the transformation of the Confederation of States into the Federal State.

As the ideas of Pestalozzi gained ground, school education in all its stages flourished exceedingly. In Switzerland, as in the United States, school education, as with the promotion of intellectual interests in general, is not the province of the Federation, but of the individual states, that is, of the cantons, whatever their differences in area and population—the latter varying between 30,000 and 700,000. And if there were a risk that the young person, on leaving school, should not at once get to grips with life, this risk was obviated by technical and professional instruction, examinations for apprentices and similar arrangements, for the most part compulsory. This fact is to be observed in all cantons.

This emphasis on school and juvenile training, entailing considerable financial burdens, certainly involves some neglect of adult education. In particular, the State has no library policy which would aim at a consistent promotion of the free library movement. Two further factors are to be noted: first, a certain sobriety and prosaic rationalism in the national character, which strives to grasp life rather by practical activity than through books; second, a considerable absorption of the interest of the world of men, at any rate, by politics, for, in so small a democracy, each individual can have his say by voting in federal, cantonal and local affairs.

But though we cannot speak of a real policy in the domain of adult

Switzerland

education, yet, since about 1830, a growing number of libraries of the most varied descriptions, containing a considerable number of volumes, has spread over the country. The distribution is certainly uneven. In the towns and industrial districts they are more crowded, in the mountains, or even the agricultural districts, more sparse. As regards their purpose and stocks, they show the utmost variety, and correspond to the widely divergent conditions created by topography and local mentality. At all points there is a visible effort to keep abreast of the times and to maintain Switzerland in her economic position, in which, owing to lack of raw materials and distance from the trade-routes of the sea, she is peculiarly handicapped.

The result was that, instead of a conscious national library policy, we have a strongly marked and vital individualism. In particular, the smaller towns have founded libraries on their own account, fulfilling in part high cultural demands, in part simpler requirements. From them the movement has spread to the open country. Such foundations are made just as frequently by the local authorities as by private persons for philanthropic purposes.

The figures on which these general remarks are based appear in two statistical reports on libraries. One, undertaken at the instance of the Swiss Statistical Society in 1868, and published in 1871, was prepared by Dr. Ernst Heitz. The other, based on official enquiries of the Federal Statistical Office carried out in 1911, was published in 1915. In 1868, collections of 20 volumes and even less were counted as libraries; in 1911, practically nothing under 100 volumes was counted. As a contrast to the research library (which term also covers the many small libraries belonging to learned societies and institutes), the second report applied the term "educational library" to the whole variety of library movements having general aims in view. Limits are not always easily fixed. There are, for instance, small and even medium-sized town libraries which work in both directions and can be regarded as libraries of the combined type, for example, Biel and La Chaux de Fonds. As a whole, however, the library of the combined type is not a Swiss institution. Even though collections such as the cantonal

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libraries of Coire and Frauenfeld, or the town libraries of Lucerne (the *Burgerbibliothek*), St. Gallen and Winterthur, issue their popular literature for general reading, they are none the less research libraries.

In 1868, of a total number of 2,000 libraries (in round figures), containing $2\frac{1}{2}$ million volumes, or about 94 volumes per hundred inhabitants, 1,740 libraries, containing 1 million volumes, were classified as educational libraries. These comprised about 720 public free libraries, 760 juvenile and school libraries, also workmen's and technical libraries and all sorts of libraries belonging to hospitals, asylums, etc. Of the 1,500 public free, juvenile and school libraries, nearly 1,100 were public property; the rest were owned by philanthropic and professional societies. Private reading societies were, as to-day, numerous. In 1911, on the other hand, the number of libraries amounted to 5,800, with 9.4 million volumes (population $3\frac{3}{4}$ millions). Of these, 4,445, containing 2,740,000 volumes, were classified as educational libraries. Thus the figures per head of the population were—total 250, educational 73 volumes.

The increase is progressive and is due to the rise in the standard of living, the extraordinary spread of science and the immense development of cultural interests in general, even the lower strata of the population now participating in them. Of the 4,058 educational libraries for which foundation figures were forthcoming, the percentage of foundations was as follows:—

Before 1800	1801- 1830	1831- 1850	1851- 1870	1871- 1890	1891- 1911	Total
0.5	1.2	7.3	18	26	47	100

CLASSIFICATION

	Juvenile and School	People's and Workmen's	Hospitals, Reformatories and Prisons	Philanthropic, Religious and other Propaganda	Private Lending	Total
Libraries	1755	2234	198	219	37	4443
Volumes	595,225	1,720,852	150,384	67,487	206,000	2,739,678

As regards proprietorship, the report of 1911 draws no distinction between educational and research libraries, but groups both together, dis-

Switzerland

tinguishing them only according to their character as public or private bodies. Six hundred and two belong to the Federation or to cantons, 2,723 to districts, municipalities and communes, 2,087 to societies and 386 to other owners. As to finance, data are available for not quite two thirds of the libraries, and no distinction is made between educational and research libraries. In 1911, expenditures amounted to 1,740,000 francs, or 472 francs per library. Of this, 1,040,000 francs came from the public funds; the remainder from interest, fees and memberships. As regards the use made of the libraries, only four-fifths gave figures. Of 3,740 educational and 890 research libraries with 2,370,000 and 5,670,000 volumes respectively, 2,600,000 volumes were issued by the former, 1,000,000 by the latter.

As regards the housing of the libraries, where they are official and the property of the public, accommodation is available in schools or public offices. Libraries of societies which are accessible to non-members on payment of a subscription are frequently housed in public buildings. Libraries in middle-sized towns which issue their popular literature to the general public either have buildings of their own or share them with other collections.

The publication of the second statistical report fell in the war-period, which left little room for general interest. In library circles, however, it attracted lively attention. More than half of the libraries contained less than 500 volumes. Less than half had open access. The very uneven distribution of the library stocks appeared clearly. A statement by districts yielded figures varying between 13,000 and 55 volumes per thousand inhabitants. Lower figures from many other districts were equally disturbing. In the narrower domain of the public free library, there was nothing to correspond to the central libraries to which so much importance is attached in the English-speaking and Scandinavian countries, an arrangement by which small libraries are supplemented from central stocks. Even in the towns, the provision made for general reading needs was unsatisfactory. Really efficient public libraries were possessed by only three of the four towns having more than 100,000 inhabitants: Basel (the *Freie städtische Bibliothek*, with which are

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combined the *Basler Volksbibliotheken*), Geneva (the *Bibliothèques circulantes*, founded and maintained by the municipality, now transformed into the municipal *Bibliothèque moderne*), and Zurich (*Oeffentliche Bibliothek der Pestalozzigesellschaft*, founded and maintained by the society whose name it bears with the help of grants from the canton and the city and comprising, beside the main library, 9 reading rooms and 4 branch libraries). Berne, the fourth town in size, also possesses a free library, though less efficient than those named. The medium-sized towns with research libraries, as has already been mentioned, issue popular books to less advanced readers. In Winterthur, besides the research library, there is a public free library with a main and branch library and reading room, also municipal property and under the same administration. The town research library of Neuchatel has developed a special service, *lectures publiques*, which, however, has not open access. On the whole, the distribution of the stocks of books appears unsatisfactory, especially in the country.

These facts led the Swiss Library Association to found a Swiss National Library (*Schweizerische Volksbibliothek*) which should serve the whole country. In view of the federalistic structure of the country, which had with difficulty borne the economic centralization rendered necessary by the war, the important point was so to organize the new library that while serving the whole country it should be adaptable enough to take account of regional peculiarities and requirements; that while mainly dependent on grants from the Federation, cantons and communes, it should carry on its business as a private body, though under the supervision of the Federation, and that it should provide for the needs of readers by sending out travelling libraries of popular and general educational literature and by issuing single professional and technical works. This latter literature is collected in a main body in Berne, while for general educational and popular literature there are seven local centres—Bellinzona, Berne, Coire, Fribourg, Lausanne, Lucerne and Zurich. Boxes of books are despatched to borough, school and church authorities, to societies and institutions of all kinds and

Switzerland

to any other bodies of more than 6 persons. Other recipients are the parish rooms set up throughout the country by a philanthropic organization for reading and social intercourse. The despatch of single volumes of professional and special literature is facilitated by special postal regulations applicable to lending libraries of every description.

Since then the public free library movement has made further progress. The Federation and the cantons now not only support their own research libraries, but have made grants in aid of the free libraries. Local efforts are also growing. Special buildings are being erected to house free libraries, the first being built in the summer of 1932 by the town of Zurich for the Pestalozzi Society. Progress is also being made as regards the staff. For educational libraries full time librarians with assistants are as yet appointed only in Basel, Geneva and Zurich, and in towns whose libraries are of the combined type, or at least serve a wider public. In our country, however, the schoolmaster is generally librarian in his spare time. We can therefore not yet speak of a real library profession as regards the free libraries. Nor does a real training course as yet exist. The way to appointment, at least in the higher library service, generally leads through voluntary service. All the same, the staff is being increased in numbers—at the large free libraries at any rate—and the full- and part-time librarians of the smaller libraries are being called together for technical discussion. In addition to this, the two Women's Schools of Social Service, at Geneva and Lucerne (the latter Catholic), have adopted a librarianship course as part of their syllabus.

The Federal Statistical Office intends this year to send out questionnaires in order to collect new library statistics. The results will yield more precise information than it was possible to give in this sketch, which is essentially based on the conditions of twenty years ago.

See *International handbook of adult education*, London, 1929, p. 435.

TUNISIA

BY MME. R. GOYE'NÈCHE,

UNIVERSITY AND PUBLIC LIBRARIAN, TUNIS

TRANSLATED BY GERTRUDE MAGINN,

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN LIBRARY

THE creation of public libraries in Tunisia is subsequent to 1881, the date of the establishment of the French protectorate over the country. These libraries are, therefore, wholly modern. They are all under the Department of Public Instruction and Fine Arts of Tunisia, which founded them.

The two principal libraries are in Tunis. Small libraries, entrusted to teachers, function in almost seventy centers in the interior of the country. A Committee of *l'Alliance Française* is interested in developing both their numbers and their value.

For places without libraries, a very small depository library (2,500 volumes) was established in 1894. It is especially designed for teachers, but the employees of other departments of the government are also allowed to borrow from it.

The two libraries in Tunis are not of equal importance. The smaller, called the Popular Library, which was founded in 1888, contains only about 13,000 volumes, chiefly books for children; the principal masterpieces of French and foreign literature, popular scientific treatises, and recreational reading of all kinds. Only those over fourteen years of age are given borrowing privileges. The library is open Sunday morning, and Tuesday and Thursday evening from eight to nine o'clock. It has no reading room, and books are issued for home use only. In 1928 the number of borrowers was 6,780, and the number of volumes

Tunisia

lent 23,730. This library is under the patronage of *l'Alliance Française*.

The more important Tunisian library is called the Public Library. It is both the library of the Department of Public Instruction and Fine Arts, under which the librarians and the assistant librarians work, and the National Library of Tunisia. It is this library which receives copy-right deposits.

Founded in 1884, it is not only a library of general culture, but is also a special library of material on Tunisia, on Northern Africa, and on Mohammedanism.

Here are to be found the greater part of Tunisian literature, a collection of source works dealing with the language and literature of the Arabs and the Mohammedan religion, and almost all works of any importance on northern Africa. There is also a very fine collection of works in Arabic—700 manuscripts, almost all of Tunisian interest—and 2,000 printed books.

The library also possesses excellent collections of works in French literature, of classical literature, of archeology, of history, of the history of art—particularly Mohammedan art—of the history of religion, of philosophy, of law, of Italian and English literature, of ancient and modern voyages, and a fine series of scientific and technical works. It has also numerous medical works—thanks to a gift made by the Society of Medical Science of Tunisia. Its collection of periodicals is likewise very important.

The total number of volumes cataloged, which rose from 5,408 in 1891 to 16,396 in 1910 and to 67,427 in 1921, has now passed the 200,000 mark.

In 1891, 687 readers read or borrowed 2,566 volumes; in 1911, 8,836 readers read or borrowed 24,538 volumes; and in 1931, 37,211 readers read or borrowed 179,653 volumes.

Two catalogs of the library's holdings—one arranged by authors and the other alphabetically by subjects, both on cards and strictly up-to-date—are at the disposal of the public.

The privilege of borrowing books for home use—secured by the payment of a small annual subscription of 15 or 25 francs (according

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to the number of books to be taken each time)—is accorded in the most liberal fashion to all the inhabitants of the Regency, without distinction of nationality. The library is, in effect, not only frequented by the European élite of the country, but also more and more by the new Tunisian generation—Arabs and Jews—who come here to complete their schooling. It thus plays an eminently educative role.

The library is open every day, with the exception of Sundays and holidays.

It is administered by a Director (*Conservateur*), M. Barreau, who is an *Archiviste Paléographe* of the *École des Chartes* of Paris, a member of the bar, and a former member of the French School in Rome, assisted by a university librarian, Mme. Goye'nèche, *licenciée-ès-lettres*, and several library assistants.

A committee, composed of twenty members selected from the most prominent French and Tunisian residents in the Regency, meets from time to time to supervise the affairs of the library and to encourage the efforts of the director.

The Public Library also lends to various libraries of North Africa, as well as to French and foreign libraries.

The results obtained in the organization of libraries during the first fifty years of the French Protectorate are already very evident. Time will permit of their extension and development.

TURKEY

BY FEHMI-EDHEM, DIRECTOR, UNIVERSITY LIBRARY, STAMBOUL

IN TURKEY we have no public libraries like those in America. Those we do have are mostly reference libraries for scholars and contain ancient texts and manuscripts; consequently there is no such movement in Turkey as understood by the title of this volume.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

BY ARTHUR E. BOSTWICK, LIBRARIAN,

ST. LOUIS PUBLIC LIBRARY

THE public library in the United States, like educational matters in general, is not a matter of direct Federal concern. It is controlled entirely by state legislation, which means that there are 48 public library systems, varying all the way from very good ones to the practically non-existent. The former are those by which we should like to be judged, but the latter are really those on which our attention should be concentrated.

Yet the states of the Union are not absolutely separated in those respects that are not functions of the central government. Like members of a family, though different entities, they have likenesses due to inheritance and to similar, though not identical, environment. The legislation of a state is often modeled on that of its neighbors. In matters of library custom not controlled by law, libraries are kept abreast of one another by common interests and by close contact due to frequent conferences, an informative library press and transfer of residence from one state to another by library workers and library users. Thus, while we must distinguish, for instance, between the libraries of Massachusetts, Missouri and Texas, in most of their broader aspects they are simply American. But it must be borne in mind that this fact is not due to central control, in a national sense.

Even in the United States the public library is a thing of very recent development. That development has been conditioned far more on

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the demands of the public than on the opinions and acts of experts. Almost every advance toward public library status, as Americans now understand it, has been at first disapproved and resisted by professional librarians. But as more and more libraries received public support, public control overrode the professional attitude, and the public has had its way. Public control and popularization have thus gone hand in hand, and their mutual reactions have increased the amount of both.

This explains the genesis and progress of the free public library in the United States—a natural growth and not a forced development—not even a planned one, except in some of its larger aspects.

An American public library is generally, though not always, public in four respects—ownership, support, control and free use. Some public libraries are privately owned but publicly used by arrangement with a municipality. In others, use is free to the public, though ownership, control and support are all private. Such institutions, however, often continue to be known as “public libraries.” The users seldom know or care about these differences, important as they are in a legal sense.

The first American public library to be established by legislative enactment was that of the city of Boston, which in 1848 was empowered to raise \$5,000 yearly for its support. The resulting library was opened in 1854. The act was made state-wide by the legislature in 1851, and prior to the Civil War of 1861 several other states had copied Massachusetts. Practically every state in the Union now has its “library law” and all but four have commissions or similar bodies to aid or oversee libraries.

But beyond local legislation and exerting an even more powerful influence has been extra-legal encouragement to library progress, notably the formation of national and state bodies of librarians, beginning with the American Library Association in 1876; gifts of money from individuals, largely for buildings, including the remarkable donations of Andrew Carnegie, amounting to over \$40,000,000; the entry of certain men of outstanding ability into the library profession; followed by the systematization of professional training, and the continued pressure

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toward liberalization exerted by the library public, to which allusion has already been made.

Library legislation has been largely permissive, but its importance arises from the fact that the ability to establish and support a free public library was not at the outset included in city charters or granted to smaller places by law. Besides granting this permission, state laws now usually specify how the library tax is to be levied, limit its amount, provide for a library governing body (quite generally, but not universally, a board of 5 to 15 trustees or directors) and regulate its powers. To enumerate the differences of detail in these two-score or more library laws would require a volume.

The advantages and disadvantages of such a body of varying legislation are simply those of our federal system itself, or of any other multiple system of local self-government. Recently special attention has been given to the extension of library privileges to rural districts, and many states have adopted legislation authorizing counties to establish libraries. Service is through branch buildings at strategic points and by "book-wagons" or travelling libraries. Probably the largest use of this method of rural library service is in the state of California.

Internal arrangement of buildings, methods of administration, cataloging, etc., have largely depended on the librarians, and have been developed progressively by trial and error, by discussion at conferences, by contributions to the library press, notably the *Library Journal* (New York), which first appeared in 1876, and *Public Libraries*, later *Libraries* (Chicago, 1896-1931), and by yielding to outside pressure. The last is especially responsible for the wide adoption of home use and the open shelf, neither of which was an element of large-library practice at the outset. These two practices may now be called the cornerstones of the American public library.

American buildings, both for university and public libraries, have in many cases been both elaborate and expensive. Mr. Carnegie's gifts were entirely for this purpose and in many cases they were well and carefully used, though numbers of smaller "Carnegie buildings" throughout the country, both for central and branch libraries, betray

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lack of knowledge or taste, either on the part of the architect or of the governing board. In some cases there is an evident attempt to produce an imposing effect by means of some one feature, such as a marble staircase, a stained-glass window or a rotunda under a dome. Generally these efforts were unsuited to the size of the building, and succeeded only in taking up space that could have been put to better use. They appear largely in the earlier buildings and most recent structures have been refreshingly free from them. By far the larger part of American library buildings have been constructed for library use alone, but there are noteworthy exceptions. The most conspicuous, probably, is the Carnegie Institute of Pittsburgh, whose building houses not only the Carnegie Library (the public library of the city) but also an art museum, a natural-history museum and a music hall. Combinations of library and museum—generally art museums—are occasionally found, and the main library of a small town is not infrequently housed in some public building such as a city hall or a school. This sort of combination is still more common with branch libraries, which may be found in schools, municipal field-houses and other public buildings.

In the central library buildings of large cities we see reflected the changing ideas of librarians regarding the storage and use of books. These changes have sometimes indicated actual progress, but occasionally they have been dictated by fashion.

The earlier large buildings often exhibited a reading hall with lofty ceiling, surrounded by alcoves fitted with shelves. This type was best fitted for the purely reference library. Then came the dispute between the advocates of the departmental system of storage and use, and those of the unified "stack," which has ended in various related types that attempt, with more or less success, to combine these two systems, as in the noteworthy modern building at Cleveland, Ohio, whose unified stack is itself divided into usable departmental units. Even where the large undivided stack is retained, as in New York, it is supplemented by departmental collections on much-used subjects such as art, economics and technology. Separate quarters for children appeared early, and are now everywhere found. In fact, the attention given to the young

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people and to the training of "children's librarians" has become a characteristic feature of American public libraries.

On the whole, the differences between the public library of today and that of fifty years ago may be summed up in one word, "socialization," by which is meant the study of the reader as well as that of the book, and especially the adaptation of one to the other. The modern librarian, in the United States, conceives of the total population of his town as potential readers, and of his total book-stock as intended to be read. He regards inactive readers and inactive books as reflections on his administrative ability and he endeavors to reduce both groups to a minimum.

He regards the reader as one of the library's "working units" and offers him as much service as possible, both personally and in groups. This has led to the provision, in library buildings, of assembly and club rooms, and the use of these by neighborhood organizations of all kinds, for social, educational, civic, religious and many other purposes.

The dictionary form of card catalog is almost universally used, and the Dewey decimal classification is found in a large majority of libraries, especially the smaller ones. In many of the older and larger libraries a special scheme of classification, devised for some particular library at its beginning, remains in use simply because change would involve great expense. Examples are the old shelf-numbers, now meaningless, still used in the Boston Public Library, and the double system of the New York Public Library, where the Reference Department still uses the classification devised for the former Astor Library, while the Circulation Department, including the 45 branch libraries, is classified on the Dewey decimal system.

Printed catalogs are chiefly a thing of the past, except in the partial form in which recent accessions appear in library bulletins.

The freedom with which library privileges are extended to persons beyond the municipal boundaries varies widely in different places, even in those within the same state of the Union. Those that are most strict limit borrowing for home use to residents of the district that is taxed for library support. Others issue cards to non-resident tax-payers, or

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to pupils in schools in the immediate vicinity of the city, while some lend books to anyone who lives near enough to visit the library in person. Even the most strict libraries, however, allow use by any non-resident on payment of a small yearly fee.

In all cases, use of books in the library building is free to all, without residential or other restrictions. Interlibrary loans are also common, although in most large libraries rare or expensive volumes are excepted.

The large number of foreign immigrants in the United States has made it necessary for public libraries to include in their book stock not only volumes in such widely read tongues as French, German, Italian and Spanish, but also much Russian and other Slavic tongues, the Scandinavian languages, Magyar, modern Greek, Polish, Yiddish and many others.

A different class of problems is offered by the Negroes, descendants of former slaves. In many states, especially in the south, it is necessary to give them separate library facilities, usually branch libraries. In the northern states they are served in the same buildings as the whites.

Special attention has been given of late to the requirements of commerce and industry. There are "business departments" and sometimes "business branches" in separate buildings.

In the operation of the libraries mechanical devices are being increasingly used. There are even machines on the market for the mechanical charging of books, one of which operates by electrical power. Books are stamped with marks of ownership and mistakes are erased, by electricity.

A recent innovation is the "book-wagon"—a library on wheels for use in rural districts, either for house to house service or to be stationed at specified points for several hours at a time. The pioneer book wagon was first used in Washington County, Maryland, in 1898. At present the usefulness of this device is most evident in rural county library work and in cities whose boundaries include much rural or semi-rural territory.

Many free libraries maintain also collections of books, chiefly fiction,

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that are rented for a small fee. These are self-sustaining and are not purchased with public money. They are supplementary to the library's free collections, and are not intended to interfere with them. In this way the users of the library have at their disposal quantities of popular duplicates that it could not otherwise afford to buy. The books are ultimately transferred to the free collection. The competency of a publicly-supported library to operate such a plan is occasionally questioned, but in one state it has been authorized by law and in another, formally approved by the courts.

In the larger libraries, training and experience are insisted upon as qualifications for employment. In some states certification by state authority is required. Some libraries operate library schools to train persons as members of their staffs. In cities where library employees are classed as municipal servants, their employment and promotion is regulated by the rules of the cities' civil service.

The larger libraries quite generally issue printed bulletins—leaflets or pamphlets, monthly or quarterly, containing lists of accessions, often with explanatory or critical notes, similar lists of books on up-to-date subjects, and sometimes news-items of interest to library-users. Occasionally these publications assume the size and value of a literary magazine, as with *More Books*, issued by the Boston Public Library.

The use of publicity has been a part of public library policy for many years. It embraces the contribution of library news-items and articles to the press, addresses and talks on the work of the library before clubs and other organizations, and all sorts of effort to make it evident that the library, as a service institution, is ready to give its aid to any worthy public enterprise, even one that at first sight would not seem to fall properly within its jurisdiction.

The United States is the happy hunting ground of all sorts of organizations—civic, educational, racial, linguistic, military, industrial, commercial or social. Some are merely local, but many are nation-wide, and they meet in annual conferences or conventions that number from hundreds to thousands of delegates. These meetings have long been the targets of quip and jest, on the ground that they are social and

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recreational to a greater degree than professional. But though the social element is often obtrusive, it is not at all negligible, even from the professional standpoint. Formal papers may be read from the printed page, after the convention, with even more benefit than could have been gained by hearing them; but the informal talk, the give and take of discussion among members of a group, arising naturally from intercourse that is primarily social, is of value that can not be reduced to print.

American librarians are indebted to such gatherings for much of the amount and the quality of library progress in the United States, and for its definite direction. Library organizations include the American Library Association, which has over 10,000 members, is nation-wide and maintains headquarters in the city of Chicago, employing some sixty persons and engaging in varied activities, including an extensive publishing program. The titles of the publications of the Association, now in print, fill 12 closely printed octavo pages of its annual *Handbook*.

Much of the Association's work is carried on by its boards and by its voluntary committees, which at present number over sixty. The Association holds an annual conference, at which, besides general sessions, there are special meetings of its sections, composed each of librarians interested in some particular phase of the work, such as cataloging, work with children, college and reference libraries, school libraries or professional training. There are 12 of these sections, and beside them four affiliated national societies generally meet with the larger body, as their members are usually members of the A.L.A. also. These are the Law Librarians, the League of Library Commissions, the State Librarians and the Special Librarians.

Separate national organizations, which, though unaffiliated, often meet with the A.L.A., include the American Library Institute, consisting mostly of chief librarians, the Association of American Library Schools and the Bibliographical Society of America.

There are, besides these nation-wide bodies, no less than 68 State, Provincial and Regional Library Associations, 37 of which are affil-

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iated with the A.L.A. as chapters. As indicated above, these include associations in the Canadian provinces; and, in general, Canadian librarians quite widely hold membership in the A.L.A., which has had two Canadian presidents and has held several of its annual conferences in Canadian cities. Combinations of these bodies occasionally hold conventions that are recognized as "regional meetings of the A.L.A."

Besides all these, there are in various cities, and in some rural communities, 40 library clubs, of which a few are also chapters of the A.L.A.

The first library school in the country, and also probably in the world, was established at Columbia College, New York City, in 1887 by Dr. Melvil Dewey, at that time librarian of the College. There are now about 40 of these one- or two-year schools in the United States of which 26 have been accredited by the American Library Association. The necessity for some body that could establish standards led in 1924 to the creation by the A.L.A. of a Board of Education for Librarianship, which accredits schools, classifies them and establishes standards for curricula and administration. Although this Board has no legal status, the schools have welcomed its aid and have voluntarily adjusted themselves to its pronouncements. The schools are also connected by membership in the Association of American Library Schools, already mentioned.

Some universities, through their extension departments, give instruction in library economy by correspondence. The most pretentious of these courses, begun by a group of librarians, has been taken over by the School of Library Service of Columbia University, New York. Such courses are not credited toward the completion of the library science curriculum or toward a degree.

Despite this undeniably impressive showing, there are still parts of the United States, as intimated earlier in this article, where library activity is at a minimum. American librarians are fully alive to the importance of aligning these regions with their neighbors, and it is probably a justified conclusion that their lack of interest in library progress is only temporary.

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For accounts of the library movements in our territories and dependencies see articles on Hawaiian Islands, the Philippines, Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands.

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UNION OF SOCIALIST SOVIET REPUBLICS

BY JESSICA SMITH,
EDITOR OF "THE SOVIET UNION REVIEW"

IN THE old Russia libraries in the large cities had fine collections of beautiful and rare volumes, but they were accessible only to the privileged classes. The popular library movement was very meagre. The libraries were divided into two categories: public subscription libraries and free public libraries. The subscription libraries, which served only a small section of the population, were permitted to carry on their shelves most of the books published in Russia, with the exception of certain ones put on a special list. The free public libraries were limited largely to religious books, patriotic histories, geographies and fiction. Conducted by the zemstvos and voluntary societies, they could be opened only by permission of the district governor and were subject to vigilant supervision. At the time of the revolution of 1905 these libraries were put on an equal status with the subscription libraries, and for a time the rigid censorship was lifted. Later even more books were prohibited, confiscated and burned.

Immediately after the revolution of 1917 libraries began to grow with great rapidity. The rich private libraries of the nobility were preserved and added to the deposits of the larger central and provincial libraries. New libraries sprang up sporadically all over the country. But at first there was very little system and the distribution of books was almost completely decentralized.

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In 1920 a decree was published under the terms of which the library system was brought under the control of the Commissariats for Education of the various republics, and central library commissions were organized under these.

In 1924 the process of development began to be somewhat more orderly. Attempts at unification are now being undertaken, but most of the libraries in the U. S. S. R. come under some one of three main types. First, there are the town public libraries which are divided into central regional libraries, district (county) libraries, and city branch libraries, all of which come under the direct supervision of the Commissariats for Education of the various republics. The central and county public libraries direct the work of the lower library units. Second, the libraries organized by the trade unions in factories and workers' clubs, and special libraries for engineers and technicians. Third, the libraries connected with schools and educational institutions which in many cases serve the outside population to a certain extent as well. The Red Army also has a well-developed library service of its own.

The school libraries are a part of the regular school system, serving mainly study purposes, and are kept at the expense of the school. The trade union libraries and the special factory libraries are financed by the trade unions and factories respectively.

The public libraries administered by the Commissariats for Education are financed by the State. In cities the City Soviet, which has an independent budget, is responsible, acting through the City Educational Department.

The library system has a definite place in the planning program. The number of new libraries to be built, the number of books to be added, are just as integral a part of it as the building of new factories and power plants. In planning, the economic and cultural importance of the territory to be served is taken into consideration. Not only is the library system considered in the general planning scheme, but the work of each library itself is planned.

Soviet libraries are an active social and educational force. They

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use all the wiles of modern publicity to attract readers. They take an active and a dynamic part in the whole life of the country and give direct help to the people in their work and needs. They have played a vigorous part in the war against illiteracy which has within the past fifteen years increased the number of literate members of the Soviet population from 30 per cent in 1917 to 90 per cent today. The custom of reading aloud is carried on in many libraries in order to bring literature to the attention of the illiterate. If a campaign to increase productivity in the factories or to push forward the spring sowing is afoot, the libraries are on hand with the necessary agitational and educational literature. They have taken an active part in furthering every section of the Five-Year Plan. The libraries work in constant contact with other Soviet institutions—schools, clubs, cooperatives, trade unions, the health department, etc.

The main features of the central public libraries are usually as follows:

1. A central department for books and periodicals, with reading rooms, and a children's department.
2. Traveling libraries to serve readers in factories, communal apartments, villages, and fields.
3. An information department.
4. An organization and supply department, responsible for directing the work of subsidiaries and supplying them with material. In districts where there are national minorities there are special departments to look after their needs.

The central libraries may be either closed-shelf or open-shelf. Formerly the closed-shelf system prevailed almost entirely. At present the open-shelf system is, more and more, being introduced.

In pre-revolutionary times printed catalogs were used. Now most of the libraries have a special catalog room where the public may consult the cards, and a duplicate catalog for the use of the staff. Whereas formerly the catalog was merely an inventory of the library, its present purpose is to furnish a guide to the actual contents of the books, to indicate appropriateness for different groups of readers, and to

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attract the readers especially to those books dealing with questions of the moment. Conventional signs have been introduced indicating five degrees—from the most simple and popular up to the most technical specialized material.

In 1925 the Central Catalog Bureau of the R.S.F.S.R. Commissariat for Education, first began to print catalog cards with annotations. Since 1927 the State Central Book Chamber began to print cards with descriptive annotations for all books published. In addition, some of the libraries provide their own annotations.

The libraries in most cases use classified catalogs. In addition, some of the larger libraries have a single alphabetical subject catalog and an author catalog divided into two parts—one in Cyrillic, one in Latin characters. The classification is according to the decimal system of the International Bibliographic Institute with alterations in certain subsections. The cards are of international standard size. Class catalogs are frequently used for certain categories of books—for example, the literature on art, and the works of Lenin. At the present time a new system, based on the Marxist-Leninist classification of the sciences, is being worked out. Alphabetical author catalogs are used rarely.

Each library is entitled to one copy, and some libraries to more than one copy, of every book published within the Soviet Union.

Rules for borrowers are similar to those in other countries. In some libraries metal tokens are used instead of cards. The time allowed for reading is from ten to fourteen days. It is not customary to impose fines on overdue books.

The Central Cataloging Bureau, in addition to publishing catalog cards, has undertaken to centralize the manufacture of library equipment and accessories, which are gradually being modernized, many American methods being applied. Indicators have not been used to any great extent in the past, but electric ones are now being installed in many libraries.

Information bureaus, manned by a special staff, answer personal and postal inquiries, file slips giving details of them, and compile a permanent card catalog of information, queries and answers, notes and sources.

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All the larger libraries have special periodical rooms where the latest issues are displayed on a classified stand with an index of the main articles. Exhibitions on matters of current interest are frequently held and articles connected with the subject of the exhibit are brought to the readers' notice. The staff handles the cataloging and classification of newspaper articles and prepares a newspaper board which contains pasted headings and extracts of press articles.

Special attention is paid to students. Students' "brigades"—that is, groups of from five to eight working on some problem—are often provided with a special room.

All the main libraries are equipped with traveling departments. Sets of books are sent out from the city libraries to factories and shops, workers' clubs, dormitories, etc., and from the district libraries to collectives, state farms, machine and tractor stations.

Libraries in factories and plants function continuously, serving all the shifts. They are headed by the organizer of library work in the shop (salaried expert librarian) and his assistants come from the workers themselves.

The larger factories have special traveling collections which are sent out in rotation.

While the emphasis is on scientific, technical and political literature, belles lettres constitutes 28.7 per cent of all books. Next come the social sciences, 19.5 per cent; history and geography, 6.5 per cent; applied sciences, 6.2 per cent; agriculture, 5.1 per cent; scattering, 29.4 per cent. According to estimates made by the State Planning Commission on July 1, 1930, the workers made up 36.4 per cent of all the library readers, peasants only 10.7 per cent. Since then, the number of peasant readers has greatly increased and is now nearly 50 per cent.

In addition to the regular library system there are thousands of independent library units, which have grown up in all places where numbers of people are gathered together for living or working. Parks, lobbies of motion picture houses, railroad stations, cooperative restaurants, apartment houses, frequently have regular libraries or reading rooms, or at least "Red Corners," (special sections with books, period-

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icals and poster displays). Workers' clubs invariably have some sort of library and reading room, either independent or as a distributing point. Among the workers there are Friends of the Library and Book Lovers' Circles, who assist the regular librarian to prepare lists for their clubs, and organize special book evenings.

The *isba tchitalnaya* (or village reading-room) is a unique Soviet institution. This is sometimes a whole building, sometimes a room in the village cooperative or other institution, or, in the smallest village, sometimes simply a Red Corner in the cooperative, school or Soviet headquarters. These reading rooms are active social and educational centers of village life. Many types of organization, particularly dramatic, have grown up around them. Study courses are held, and reading aloud is done regularly for illiterate and semi-literate peasants. Where large enough, the reading-room is used for various gatherings and frequently serves as the village club. In 1932 there were 38,283 of them throughout the U.S.S.R.

While great progress has been made in the coordination of the Soviet library system there is still considerable need for unification, and practical experimentation began in 1929.

During 1925 and 1926 the Commissariat for Education made a study of library methods in other countries. The California County free library plan seemed most applicable to Soviet conditions and accordingly Harriet G. Eddy, formerly county library organizer in California, was invited to inspect the Soviet library system. The next step was to send Anna Kravchenko, a library specialist of the Soviet Union, to the United States. On her return widespread library reorganization was undertaken, and in 1930 Miss Eddy was invited to return to help in instituting the new system. Miss Eddy described the beginnings of unified library service in the Soviet Union in the *Library Journal* for January 15, 1932.

The demonstration library at Orechovo-Suevo, about 3 hours east of Moscow, is now used as a practice library for students from the new library school, and its example is already being followed in other parts of the country. At the same time natural unified library units are de-

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veloping elsewhere in the U.S.S.R. The Samara State Library has a library school with a two-and-a-half-year course. A very interesting service has developed in connection with the state experimental-training farm, Verblud, in the North Caucasus. A town of 7,000 has grown up in connection with the farm. There is an agricultural university of a thousand students, and one of the most completely equipped agricultural experiment stations in the world. The sovkhoz (State farm) is divided into eight permanent units from which the field workers operate as a base, and there are ten cooperating collectives bordering on it which receive machinery and technical help. The library for this area has its center in Verblud, its branches in each of the eight units and the ten cooperating collectives, and it serves the whole town as well.

In 1927-28 there were 28,294 libraries in the U.S.S.R., with 62,313,000 books and 7,600,000 subscribers. By 1930-31, after the concentration of the libraries, the total number of libraries was reduced to 27,312 in the interests of efficiency. At the same time, the book stocks had increased to 94,000,000 and the readers to 11,600,000. In the same period the number of traveling libraries increased from 52,000 to 111,000. At the present time there are 34,338 libraries in the U.S.S.R. Special efforts have been made to increase and improve libraries among national minorities.

Thus, while in the U.S.S.R. as a whole the number of libraries increased by 96.5 per cent between 1927-28 and 1930-31, they increased by only 73.5 per cent in the R.S.F.S.R., by 94.1 per cent in Uzbekistan, by 99.7 per cent in Transcaucasia, by 144.3 per cent in the Ukraine, by 164 per cent in the Turcoman Republic and by 376.8 per cent in White Russia.

The number of books in all Soviet libraries is increasing rapidly, as the Soviet Union is now one of the foremost countries in the world with regard to the extent of book publishing. In the fifteen years since it was established, 376,000 titles have been published, while only 250,000 titles were published in the whole preceding century under the Tsar. The average pre-war circulation of books has been quadrupled,

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and new editions are exhausted almost as soon as they come from the presses.

There was little formally-organized library training in old Russia. Now a network of institutions for the training of library workers has been developed. There are a number of Institutes of Library Science where teachers for the higher schools of librarianship and chief librarians for the leading libraries are trained. Organizers for district libraries and for those of important industrial centers, and also teachers for library high-schools are trained at librarians' institutes, library sections in pedagogical institutes and universities. Library technicums (high schools), and special departments in pedagogical technicums, prepare librarians for the vast network of local libraries.

Seven years of common schooling are required for admission to the technicums. The period of instruction is three years. Most of the assistant librarians and library workers have passed through either the correspondence courses of the higher schools, through technicums attached to libraries or through courses (covering from one to six months) for improving the qualifications of librarians. Such courses are organized in district and regional centers, and are obligatory upon all librarians who received their training under the old régime.

In September, 1930, the first "library university" was started in Moscow as a department of the Lenin Memorial Library, with an American trained librarian in charge. The curriculum includes university subjects, and the students spend forty days in each semester doing what is called "practice-practical" work. This consists of four hours actual library work and four hours "factory" work, in order to study the needs of the reader by actually working at his side.

Advanced library specialists are trained as candidates at the Scientific Research Institute of Library Science and at the Leningrad and Kharkov Institutes of Political Education. Candidates are selected from persons with higher library education who have served as librarians for a certain period and have done social work.

Membership in the trade union of educational workers is open to librarians. They are paid at the same rate as teachers. The working

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day is six to six and a half hours, every fifth day being a rest day. The summer vacations with pay vary from two weeks to two months according to degree of responsibility and length of service.

The library press is now represented by the magazines *In Aid of the Traveling Librarian*, *Red Librarian*, *Bibliography and Library Science*.

In Aid of the Traveling Librarian is designed for those who engage in this work in their spare time and for librarians who are concerned with traveling libraries. It devotes considerable attention to new forms of library work in shop departments and brigades and in the agricultural districts, and to the best methods of distributing books (especially technical and political books).

The Red Librarian—a leading organ of the Chief Department of Political Education—is designed primarily for library workers in the public libraries. It prints material on library construction and decisions of the Party, of the government, the directives of the People's Commissariat of Education and of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions.

Bibliography and Library Science is published by the Science Section of the People's Commissariat for Education and is for librarians and bibliographers of the highest qualifications: those of leading scientific libraries, of scientific research institutes and of other institutions dealing with books. Publication was interrupted for a time, but resumed on January 1, 1933. This magazine is devoted mainly to bibliography, library science and the organization of scientific libraries.

In 1931 a decree was issued by the R.S.F.S.R. designed to improve library service and book distribution generally. It instructed the Narkompros (Commissariat for Education) to take steps to reorganize book distribution in connection with the publishing companies and book-trade concerns. A commission is to provide for central libraries in every region, with a system of branch and traveling libraries attached. In addition all enterprises employing more than a thousand workers and all large state farms are to have central libraries and branch or traveling libraries. All machine and tractor stations and

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larger collectives are to have stationary libraries, while traveling library service is to be provided for the smaller ones. Arrangements are to be made with the housing cooperatives to establish libraries in all housing centers and to provide reading rooms in all places where workers gather—such as railroad stations, parks and restaurants. Special six months' courses for librarians were held during the summer of 1932, and last autumn a library *Rabfac* was opened in connection with the Moscow Library Institute. Additional short courses for library workers are to be opened in other places. Readers' Councils are being organized to cooperate with the libraries. Greatly increased funds have been allocated for library work, and the Commissariat for Light Industries has been instructed to see to the manufacture of the necessary library equipment.

VENEZUELA

BY RAFAEL GONZÁLES RINCONES,

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TRANSLATED BY DR. WINTHROP H. CHENERY,

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THE National Library, because of the large amount of bibliographical material which it contains, is the principal institution of its kind functioning in Caracas. Its quarters are ample, two stories high, with a handsome facade constructed during the first administration of President Juan Vicente Gómez. In addition to the departments of science, history, literature and periodicals in several languages, the library has special sections devoted to the intellectual products of each one of the Hispano-American countries. The sections for Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Uruguay and Cuba possess up to the present the greater number of volumes. At regular intervals the United States of North America, by means of the Smithsonian Institution, sends important publications, both public and private. Likewise the Hispanic Society sends editions in facsimile of the masterpieces of Spanish Literature. Another interesting section of the Institution, that of National Bibliography, has during the last years grown notably and usefully through publication of works of history, literature and education, printed in the typographical work shops of the capital. The majority of these have been subsidized by the federal executive. Others have been published by private initiative.

The National Library has a competent personnel consisting of a director, a sub-director, a first assistant, a second assistant, an assistant in charge of the national bibliography, an assistant in charge of the

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circulating library, a cataloger, a porter and a laborer. The library is open to the public on every work day from 8:30 until 11:30 A.M. and from 2:00 until 5:30 P.M.

According to the statistics published by the library, in the year just past the number of readers was 43,081. Attached to the library in spacious quarters is the circulating library. This is of great use because of the facilities which it offers to persons who are not at leisure during the day to visit the National Library. Last year 242 bank-notes with a value of 2596 bolivares were spent. As an organ of publicity the *Bulletin of the National Library*, now nine years old, is issued quarterly and is carried on by the director. The *Bulletin* gives account of the progress of the library furnishing bibliographical notes upon books and periodicals, both national and foreign, received during the quarter. There have appeared in the pages of the *Bulletin*, facsimiles of *El Colombiano*, the *Gaceta de Caracas*, the *Correo del Orinoco* and the *Diario de la Tarde* (afternoon daily), newspapers which were published in small editions at the beginning of the last century; and also facsimiles of the title pages of many little known and rare books.

The Academies of Language, History, Political Sciences and Medical Sciences, all have extensive libraries not only for their members, but also for other persons who may wish to visit them during established hours of reading.

In the administration of General Juan Vicente Gómez, the house in which the Liberator Simón Bolívar was born was reconstructed. At that time there was founded in this house the Bolivar Library which grows steadily through the accessions of native and foreign works dealing with the life of this great man.

In addition to the libraries in the capitals of the states, founded by the government of each unit, there are others created by cultural associations. These contribute largely to the intellectual development of the country. In Barcelona, capital of the State of Anzoátegui, there is the library of the Society of Amigos de Cajigal; in San Cristóbal, capital of the State of Táchira, that of the Society Salón de Lectura and that of the Club Obrero (worker's club); in Calabozo, capital of the State of

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Guárico, the Municipal Library; in Zaraza, District of the State of Guárico, the Library General Zaraza; in Tovar, District of the State of Mérida, the Library of the Salón de Lectura and that of the Unión Sport Club and that of Centro de Amigos; and in Macuruba, District of the State of Mérida, the Salón de Lectura; in Cumaná, capital of the State of Sucre, the Centro de Cultura and the Salón de Lectura Antonio José Sucre; in Trujillo, capital of the State of the same name, the Public Library and the Library of the 24th of July; in Mérida, capital of the state of the same name, the Museo Simón Bolívar; in Palmar, District of the State of Bolívar, the Cultura Patria; and in Juangriego, District of the State of Nueva Esparta, the Cultura Patria.

The Ministry of Public Instruction is convinced of the importance of public libraries for children of school age and is interested in supporting them; and at the same time that it encourages the National Library, an institution within its own domain, it sends books to the libraries of the states and to the above mentioned reading centers; and it promotes libraries in elementary and secondary schools and in the universities in order that the educational and library movements may converge with greater efficiency on the intellectual progress of the country.

VIRGIN ISLANDS

BY EDITH C. MOON,

SUPERVISING LIBRARIAN, ST. THOMAS

IN THE Virgin Islands of the United States the public library is an American institution.

Before the transfer of the islands from Denmark in 1917 the Athenaeum, a privately supported library of approximately 10,000 volumes, served the reading interests of its cosmopolitan and exclusive membership in Charlotte Amalie, St. Thomas.

On the island of St. Croix, one of the churches had assembled a collection of books for circulation among its clientele. These two semi-private libraries were then the only agencies endeavoring to meet the book interests and book hunger of the 25,000 inhabitants of the Islands.

The need for public libraries in these communities, where the homes are generally destitute of books and where there are no news stands or book stores, was felt keenly by those most interested in improving the condition of the people. The individual towns were not in a position to support libraries and the Danish government was not launching any new projects.

These groups of native citizens, conscious of the book needs on the two larger islands (St. Thomas and St. Croix), found a sympathetic champion of their cause in the first American Director of Education. With no reference books for the schools or for public use—no encyclopedias, dictionaries, current literature or fiction—he wrote soon after his arrival:

Virgin Islands

"I can think of nothing better that the Red Cross can do for us here, and nothing that we here would appreciate more, or that is more needful, than a Public Library, where people of all classes can go to secure information or literature that will help them to improve their condition.

"If it is within the sphere of action of the Red Cross to 'alleviate mental suffering,' then I believe the Red Cross could do a splendid work in giving us libraries."

The American Library Association was appealed to and was interested, but could not finance the project, and so it was the Junior Red Cross that agreed to defray the expenses of supplies, books and the services of an organizer to be selected by the American Library Association. Gifts of nearly 3,000 books were secured from the Association's War Service collection, from the Navy Department and from generous northern libraries.

Soon after the arrival in the Virgin Islands of the field representative of the Red Cross, the establishment of library service was discussed with the chapter members and the naval officials, representing the government.

Due to the limited transportation facilities, the necessity of operating under two municipalities, and the differences in the economic and social life of St. Thomas and St. Croix, it was found impracticable to organise the service as traveling libraries. Local library committees were formed and the municipalities were asked to provide sufficient funds to pay for the rental of suitable quarters and the upkeep of the three libraries.

Due to the fact that the personnel in the Islands was constantly changing, the naval officials staying not longer than two years, it was thought wise to establish a permanent legal body in each municipality to handle all matters relating to the libraries. Ordinances were drawn up, submitted to and passed by the Colonial Councils in May, 1920.

These ordinances provided for:

(1) Establishment of the libraries and maintenance by the municipalities.

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(2) A board of control, or library commission, composed of three members, appointed for two years—one by the local chapter of the Red Cross, one by the Colonial Council and one by the Governor.

(3) Definition of the function of the commission responsible for the operation of the libraries and the disbursement of appropriations.

(4) An annual report to the Governor.

In the original set-up of the library commissions, the Governor's appointee was the director of education, and this tied the libraries up with the department of education, which proved a very satisfactory working arrangement for the libraries.

Later, the administration of the libraries was transferred to the department of public welfare through the Governor's appointment to the library commission of the chaplain, head of that department. Thus the libraries were separated from the educational program of the Islands.

Recently the ordinances have been amended, increasing the number of members from three to five, providing permanently for the director of education and the supervising librarian, and making the libraries independent of any other department, with the supervising librarian as the executive head.

The libraries were opened in December 1920 with generous supplies of books for general and recreational reading and fair collections of reference books. The children's rooms were stocked with large and choice collections. Native librarians were appointed and for about two years were under the supervision of trained librarians who came to do the organizing.

The Dewey classification was used and simple methods of cataloging taught. There was very little reference work and no work with the schools.

Then followed seven years with no trained or experienced administration or supervision.

The original book collections became thoroughly unattractive and almost depleted, municipal appropriations were cut, book-buying was haphazard and intermittent, and the libraries held no vital place in the activities of the community.

Virgin Islands

They were not identified in the minds of the people or in any other way with the educational program of the government.

The circulation records showed a steady decline year after year.

In 1929, through the Governor of the Islands, the Carnegie Corporation of New York was approached. Miss Sarah C. N. Bogle came to make an investigation, which resulted in securing a grant of \$25,000 over a period of three years. This money has been spent for service and books.

The book collections in each library have been reviewed and culled, and new books have been placed on the shelves; a collection of books to use as traveling libraries in the country schools has been established; reference work in connection with the schools has become an important feature of the work, and the idea of service to the community is being demonstrated.

A comparison of the reports submitted in 1931 with those of 1929, the year before the Carnegie Corporation sent aid to the Islands, is illuminating. The annual report for the latter year showed the total circulation from the three libraries to have been 27,574 volumes. In 1931 the same agencies made a return of 73,219 or a gain of 45,645. For a complete picture of the increased library activities in the Islands the 3,157 books read in the country schools should be included, or a total gain of 48,802.

This statistical evidence of progress is interesting, but of more vital significance is the change which has taken place in the borrowers. In 1929 fifty-six percent of the books were circulated to adults, whereas in 1931 sixty-three percent were borrowed from the children's rooms.

Two thirds of the revenue required to administer the government of the Virgin Islands has to be made up by federal appropriation. This being the case, the financial future of the libraries is the real problem of the library commissions.

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